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### On hiking groups and mobile carts : a community-initiated changing process for American schools

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ON HIKING GROUPS AND MOBILE CARTS:  
A COMMUNITY-INITIATED CHANGING  
PROCESS FOR AMERICAN SCHOOLS

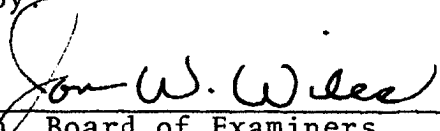
By

Elizabeth Lee Loughran  
B.A., Wellesley College, 1961

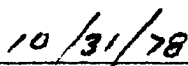
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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter		Page
I	INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
II	CHANGING . . . . .	8
III	COMMUNITY-SCHOOL INTERACTION . . . . .	25
IV	A TALE OF FOUR CITIES . . . . .	38
	Madison, Wisconsin . . . . .	39
	Urbana, Illinois . . . . .	44
	Hanover, New Hampshire . . . . .	51
	Missoula, Montana . . . . .	57
V	A MODEL: THE COMMUNITY-INITIATED CHANGING PROCESS . . . . .	64
	Assumptions . . . . .	64
	Phase I: Awareness . . . . .	68
	Phase II: Trial . . . . .	75
	Phase III: Institutionalization and Planning . . . . .	86
	Phase IV: Implementation and Continued Change . . . . .	101
	Prescott School . . . . .	108
	BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	111

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Prescott School is a small elementary school located in a medium-sized city in the Northern Rockies. Like all schools, it is special--special because children spend their days there and special, too, because it is located in a beautiful place. The schoolyard rises vertically up Mt. Jumbo which, depending on the geologist one consults, is either the northernmost mountain in the Sapphire Range or the southernmost mountain of the Rattlesnakes. Late in the winter, elk and mule deer graze on the slopes waiting for the snows to melt in the upper elevations. By May the slopes are abaze with the brilliant blues of the delphiniums, scarlets of the Indian paintbrush and yellow disks of the giant arrowleaf balsam roots. Three blocks from the school the Rattlesnake Creek splashes through Greenough Park, a wooded area donated by one of the city's early entrepreneurs for the enjoyment of all the city's citizens. Tiny yellow glacier lilies and purple trillium thrive in the damp woodland environment.

Inside Prescott School, children are doing the usual things. Prescott is a good school with dedicated teachers.

Children are taught the basics through imaginative and generally successful techniques. The school uses the S.C.I.S. science program and the Silver Burdett Social Studies Series, both national programs known for their inquiry techniques. Children play the usual games on the flat portion of the schoolyard, but rarely do they venture either singly or by groups up the trail to the mountain. It is as if schools by definition are closed, man-made places which encompass only school-directed activities. The school's setting is, for the most part, irrelevant to its program.

The city that surrounds Prescott School is quite similar. It is a nice place to live according to most of its residents, with many attractive neighborhoods and a medium-sized university. Yet much of this city sprawls in unregulated commercial strips entangled in traffic and dominated by a jungle of commercial signs. Serious air pollution hangs over the valley caused by the cars, furnaces, pulp mills, and sawmills. One can climb Mt. Jumbo on a mild spring day, stretch out amidst the colorful gardens, enjoy the clear sky, and not be able to see the city below. There is, to those who climb the mountains, a symbolic split between the community and its environment; the two seem unnaturally separated. The children do not have a sense of place but rather live in an artificial environment of schoolroom, television room, and fast-food outlets.

As in many similar communities, there are individuals

who sense this dissonance and would like to bring both their communities and their schools to a closer awareness of their special place, and of the particular needs of the land and its inhabitants. These people want change, but they are, for the most part, housewives and business people, weekend hikers and skiers, individuals without access to money or powerful organizations. Many of these people are experts in their way, knowledgeable about their valley and willing to share their expertise. These people come with valuable resources and serious shortcomings as they ponder the process they would like to initiate. This paper will attempt to present a model that will build on their strengths, offer strategies for overcoming their weaknesses, and enable similar community groups who want change to be effective and successful.

In other words, this paper is another addition to the literature on educational change. As such it will explore in depth a type of change strategy which has gotten particular attention since the late 1960s. With the very vivid sense of alienation both of individuals and community groups arising out of the racial and ideological conflicts of those years, there has been an increasing need expressed to return the schools to community control and concerns. Thus the change envisioned is one that has its roots outside the school. The changing process is one that will enable community members to communicate their concerns to the schools, provide a

mechanism for internalizing those concerns within the school, and establishing an ongoing school community interactive process.

It is a thesis of this essay that lasting educational change and in fact meaningful learning will always have elements of this interactive process. Perhaps the recent history of school integration will suffice to illustrate the point. In 1954, the Supreme Court mandated school integration; it was an important decision but as anyone knows, that mandate has still not been totally implemented, twenty-five years later. The schools cannot change in isolation from their communities; similar elements in the community must change too. Correspondingly, the problems of inner-city schools illustrate what happens when a community changes and the schools fail to react to those changes. Violence, increased dropout rates and drug use are symptoms of schools that have failed to respond to community needs. Thus educational change is a highly symbiotic relationship. Internal and external factors must work together and the mechanism is as complex and diversified as the groups involved.

There are two sources of research that have bearing on this interactive process. One is the literature on change itself, the analyses of the various change strategies and their appropriateness for various purposes. The numerous schemes presented are very useful as conceptual frameworks for analyzing proposed strategies and evaluating their probable



effect. However, the majority of the research in this field has concentrated in two types of situations, neither of which is totally appropriate for the process described in this paper. One situation is the diffusion of expert knowledge, for example, the invention of the polio vaccine and its diffusion to the general population. The other situation is the investigations of mechanism for change that are effective within complex organizations. The latter situation has relevance for the process through which a school might internalize community concerns, but neither of the models address the problem of a diverse community that has little access to expertise to initiate and effect change from outside the institution.

A second source of research, the community education literature, is much more relevant to the community needs and is particularly useful in setting this change process within an understandable philosophical context. However, it often presupposes a very different environment and set of problems than those which exist in America's small cities and towns. The subtitle of Ellen Lurie's book, How to Change the Schools, is indicative. It is called "A Parents' Action Handbook on How to Fight the System."<sup>1</sup> Most of the impetus of the current community education movement, as will be shown, came from the urban turmoil of the late 1960s. Much of the writing assumes an antagonistic atmosphere where citizens, many of whom are

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<sup>1</sup>Ellen Lurie, How to Change the Schools: A Parents' Action Handbook on How to Fight the System (New York: Random House, 1970).

members of minority groups, are learning how to get their just due from the system. Again, much of the philosophy and some of the techniques are applicable to our smaller communities, but much is not. Often these communities are relatively calm and an atmosphere of cooperation exists. The people have different types of strengths from those in urban ghettos. Calm and cooperation, however, can lead as often to stagnation as to constructive change. Equally true is that different types of techniques are called for if change is to occur in these circumstances.

Another source of help exists for those who would like to connect Prescott School to Mt. Jumbo, and that is the experiences of similar communities who have successfully integrated the resources of the community into their children's educational programs. Though the experiences of some of these communities have been summarized for readers of educational journals, more often than not, their programs go unrecorded. Generally the initiators are community members who are activists, rather than scholars who publish. The processes these people have developed, though, are often innovative and ingenious. Four of these programs will be analyzed in this paper. The four communities--Hanover, New Hampshire; Madison, Wisconsin; Urbana, Illinois; and Missoula, Montana--are somewhat similar in size and socioeconomic composition. The programs discussed all happen to be environmental education programs though the techniques used in creating these programs are applicable to other fields as well.

This paper, then, will explore the relevant literature on change and community education and analyze various models in order to conceptualize a process of change which originates in the community, is effectively internalized by both the school and the community and leads to a cooperative process that has the possibility of continuing interaction on future issues.

## CHAPTER II

### CHANGING

Most observers agree that change in education has had less long-term impact than change in industry, agriculture, or other professions. The four major subjects--English, mathematics, social studies, and science--introduced in the early years of the twentieth century along with the lecture method, still form the basis of much school practice. An observer from those days would be relatively comfortable in the majority of America's classrooms, though a Ford Motor Company worker would find a late twentieth-century factory or business almost incomprehensible.

As usual, Carl Schultz has captured much of the reason for this static condition in one of his classic dialogues:

Linus: This "new math" is too much for me.

Lucy: You'll get on to it....It just takes time....

Linus: Not me....I'll never get on to it!

Linus: How can you do "new math" problems with an "old math" mind?<sup>1</sup>

In education, much more than other fields, change is people-

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<sup>1</sup>As cited in Robert Chin, "Basic Strategies and Procedures in Effecting Change," Planning and Effecting Needed Change in Education (Denver: Designing Education for the Future: An Eight State Project funded by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, 1967), p. 65.

centered rather than thing-centered. In Robert Howsam's terminology, change in education involves "person specialization" rather than "task specialization."<sup>2</sup> Change involves changing the people surrounding the child so that eventually the child changes.

A corollary of this people-centered approach is that in education one must develop not so much a theory of change but a theory of changing. The "new math" is a change, but it is a meaningless effort unless one can develop a process of changing Linus' "old math" mind. In terms of Prescott School, the change might be an environmental education curriculum which again is useless unless a process of changing both classroom-bound teachers and an insensitive community accompanies the materials. There has, in other words, been plenty of change in education but too often it has been short-lived. "Sometimes the changes brought about simply 'fade out' because there are no carefully worked out procedures to insure coordination with other interacting parts of the system. In other cases, the changes have backfired and have had to be terminated because of their conflict with interface units. In any case, a good deal more has to be learned about the interlocking and stabilizing changes so that the total system is affected."<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 67.

<sup>3</sup>Warren G. Bennis, "Theory and Method in Applying Behavioral Science to Planned Organizational Change," The Planning

Another reason that a theory of change is inadequate for twentieth-century America is the very rapid nature of change. With knowledge doubling every seven years,<sup>4</sup> one cannot assume that the "new math" will stay new very long. Rather the mechanism for replacing the new math is much more crucial than the content itself, and that mechanism in education must be oriented towards people: "For us the crucial factor is the inadequacy of present day organizations to cope with the complexity of rapid change and the problems of human collaboration. Adaption and collaboration are two of the main problems confronting contemporary society, and our organizations will fail or succeed depending upon their mastery of these two tasks."<sup>5</sup>

Put another way, a theory of change is adequate for observers, but it is totally inadequate for practitioners, and yet according to Warren Bennis, one of the most active commentators in the field, a theory of changing does not now exist.<sup>6</sup> Part of the reason is that a theory of changing

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of Change, eds. Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne, and Robert Chin (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969), p. 76.

<sup>4</sup>Kimball Wiles, "Contrasts in Strategies of Change," Strategy for Curriculum Change, ed. Robert R. Leeper (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1965), p. 3.

<sup>5</sup>Warren G. Bennis and Edgar H. Schein, "Principles and Strategies in the Use of Laboratory Training for Improving Social Systems," The Planning of Change, p. 336.

<sup>6</sup>Bennis, "Theory and Method in Applying Behavioral Science to Planned Organizational Change," p. 64.

involves complex interdisciplinary research in the behavioral sciences, all of which are relatively new themselves. At best what exists is a list of the items that a valid theory of changing must address. According to Robert Chin, they involve the following:

- a. A theory of changing must include manipulable variables--accessible levers for influencing the direction, tempo, and quality of change and improvement.
- b. The variables must not violate the client system's values.
- c. The cost of usage cannot be prohibitive.
- d. There must be provided a reliable basis of diagnosing the strength and weakness of conditions facing the client system.
- e. Phases of intervention must be clear so that the change agent can develop estimates for termination of the relationship.
- f. The theory must be communicable to the client system.
- g. It must be possible to assess appropriateness of the theory for different client systems.<sup>7</sup>

Though a valid theory of changing does not exist, the science has, in the last twenty years, developed a theoretical framework for looking at types and sources of change. The framework is an extremely useful one as a point of reference both for analyzing current strategies and for projecting the type of strategy most useful under a given set of circumstances.

Perhaps the earliest dialogue on the subject of change

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<sup>7</sup> Ibid.

was the issue of whether change should be planned or unplanned. The issue had its origins in the debate between the various social scientists interpreting the work of Charles Darwin. Social Darwinists under the leadership of William Graham Sumner believed in the negative state. Societies evolved as did the species through unchangeable stages and there was nothing man could or should do to influence and change that process. Planned change was useless to them, a pretentious meddling in the historical process. Reform Darwinists, led by Lester Frank Ward, came to precisely the opposite conclusions using the same data. Man evolving in a biologically sound way had invented certain artificial things to help him, including such institutions as the government and schools. Not to use these inventions to help man was in fact to violate biological lessons. Thus planned changes, beginning with the Pure Food and Drug Act and continuing through the reformist actions of most twentieth-century governments, follow sound scientific principles. Today's theory of change is well within the Reform Darwinist camp; the debate has become not so much whether to plan change, but the more technical how to plan for it.<sup>8</sup>

Planned change, however, is a very complex phenomenon. At the least it involves a "change agent, a client system, and the collaborative attempt to apply valid knowledge to the client's problems."<sup>9</sup> The process also involves complex

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<sup>8</sup>Ibid., p. 31.

<sup>9</sup>Ibid., p. 65.



abilities to analyze that client system and the resulting collaborative process. Bennis has identified the following criteria as essential to the process of planned change:

- a. Takes into consideration the behavior of persons operating within their specific institutional environments;
- b. Is capable of accounting for the inter-related levels (person, group, role, organization) within the context of social change;
- c. Includes variables that the policy maker and practitioner can understand, manipulate, and evaluate;
- d. Can allow selection of variables appropriate in terms of its own values, ethics, moralities;
- e. Accepts the premise that groups and organizations as units are amenable to empirical and analytic treatment;
- f. Takes into account external social processes of change as well as interpersonal aspects of the collaborative process;
- g. Includes propositions susceptible to empirical tests focusing on the dynamics of change.<sup>10</sup>

Perhaps a reason for the relative short-term nature of many educational innovations in this century is the failure to admit and address the complex nature of planned change. In the 1930s, for instance, it was assumed that "change in the curriculum of an entire system, state or city, can be effected by adopting a new master plan drawn up by outside experts."<sup>11</sup> Written guides abounded with little effect on the instructional

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<sup>10</sup>Ibid., p. 66.

<sup>11</sup>Wiles, p. 4.

process. By the 1940s and '50s, the model was extended somewhat to include involvement of teachers in some curriculum planning and a stronger emphasis on inservice work.<sup>12</sup> There was, in other words, an acknowledgment of the teacher as a client, but that recognition was relatively simplistic in that it did not define the teacher (and one might add the student and his community) as part of a very complex social pattern that does not necessarily adopt the new math after one or two inservice sessions.

Aside from establishing the necessity of planned change and defining that term in a complex manner, researchers in the field have also attempted to categorize the process in a number of ways. One category has already been mentioned, the extent to which the change involves people or things. Education texts may elaborate on these categories but they remain essentially the same. Ben Harris, for instance, lists physical changes, rule changes, organizational changes and functional changes, all of which might be considered thing or task-type changes, along with personnel changes which definitively involve people.<sup>13</sup> The dichotomy is a particularly important one as will be shown later because strategies that may be successful in effecting physical changes often fail completely when used with people.

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<sup>12</sup>Ibid., p. 4-5.

<sup>13</sup>Ben M. Harris, Supervisory Behavior in Education (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975), pp. 33-34.

Another important issue is whether the change comes from inside or outside the system. To date research has not proved whether an internal or external change agent is more effective.<sup>14</sup> A common model today is to combine an outside expert consultant with internal leadership from top administrators. Obviously any community-initiated educational change must involve both external and internal forces, but little evidence exists as to which combination is most effective.

A number of writers have attempted to categorize change strategies in order to analyze and apply them more specifically. Havelock, for instance, has postulated three basic types of models: a research and development model which attempts to transform basic research into practice, a social interaction model which emphasizes the diffusion process, and a problem-solving model which suggests change comes from within the client system rather than from without.<sup>15</sup> Matthew Miles proposes a power-oriented category, a relationship and attitude-oriented group and a problem-solving, process-oriented strategy.<sup>16</sup> Grenier has a more elaborate set of categories that assigns the change to one of seven categories: the decree

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<sup>14</sup>Bennis and Schein, "Principles and Strategies in the Use of Laboratory Training for Improving Social Systems," p. 339.

<sup>15</sup>Ivor Morrish, Aspects of Educational Change (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1976), pp. 109-12.

<sup>16</sup>Chin, "Basic Strategies and Procedures in Effecting Change," p. 43.

approach, the replacement approach, the structural approach, the group decision method, the data discussion method, the group problem-solving approach, and the T. group approach.<sup>17</sup>

Useful as these categories might be, it is Robert Chin's three-part model that has gained the greatest acceptance and with the help of his colleague, Kenneth Benne, the most thorough theoretical explanation.<sup>18</sup> This model proposes three categories of change: an empirical-rational approach, a normative-reeducative method and a power-coercive strategy. It is a useful conceptualization, not so much because a particular change strategy will fit precisely into one of the categories, but because it more accurately delineates the type of change best served by the appropriate strategy.

The empirical-rational strategy is the oldest of the three, both in education and in other fields. It assumes that the change is developed by expert researchers, its merits are demonstrated conclusively, and a slow but eventually successful diffusion process ensues. The Enlightenment provides the philosophical roots of this approach, and its influence is as much evident in Horace Mann's emphasis on universal education as it is in the federal government's establishment of land grant colleges and agricultural extension offices, or, much later, in the faith in curriculum guides in the 1930s. If one is exposed

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<sup>17</sup> Ibid., p. 42.

<sup>18</sup> Robert Chin and Kenneth D. Benne, "General Strategies for Effecting Changes in Human Systems," The Planning of Change, pp. 32-59.

to the truth, one will change to accommodate it.

Perhaps the most thorough elaboration of this model, as well as one of the earliest articulated theories of change is Herbert Lionberger's study of the diffusion of innovative agricultural research.<sup>19</sup> It is an extremely well researched model based on over four hundred studies.<sup>20</sup> Key to the model is the definition of change which involves the acceptance over time of some specific item, idea or practice, by an individual, groups or other adopting unit, linked to specific channels of communication, and to a social structure with a given system of values and culture.<sup>21</sup> It is assumed, as critics such as Raymond Bauer have pointed out, that change is accepted, and that the client is basically passive.<sup>22</sup> The source of change is also presumed to be unquestioned. Thus the model stresses the time involved and the usual sequence of a slow early pace, rapid acceleration and then final deceleration as the change is adopted. Much attention is paid to communication patterns and methods of using change agents to influence key people in the community.

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<sup>19</sup>Herbert F. Lionberger, "Diffusion of Innovations in Agricultural Research and in Schools," Strategy for Curriculum Change, pp. 29-54.

<sup>20</sup>Ibid., p. 29.

<sup>21</sup>Ibid.

<sup>22</sup>Raymond A. Bauer, "The Obstinate Audience: The Influence Process from the Point of View of Social Communication," The Planning of Change, p. 509.

The model is an important one to anyone interested in the diffusion of a new idea through a community; however there are some problems in applying it to education. As Lionberger himself points out, farmers have official organizations for legitimizing change while no such organization exists in education.<sup>23</sup> A related problem is that innovation in agriculture tends to be linked to things rather than people,<sup>24</sup> and thus agricultural change is much more likely to be empirically demonstrable. One cannot assume a passive recipient if there is no universally respected way to demonstrate the validity of the proposed change.

Despite these problems though, this model is still the dominant one in education. It is the thesis behind the research and development centers and the regional laboratories,<sup>25</sup> and the force behind the major curriculum innovations of the 1960s. The "new math" is demonstrably better than the old; therefore teachers will adopt it willingly. What educators have failed to realize is that the technique is much more successful when the change envisioned is the use of overhead projectors, not when the change is team teaching.<sup>26</sup>

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<sup>23</sup>Lionberger, p. 39.

<sup>24</sup>Chin and Benne, "General Strategies for Effecting Changes in Human Systems," p. 49.

<sup>25</sup>Ibid., p. 40.

<sup>26</sup>Harris, p. 58.

The power-coercive approach is perhaps the next most prevalent change strategy in education and at close glance is not as negative a technique as the name implies. It does, however, involve the use of power, most usually political and economic power but often moral power as well. The power can be used by legitimate groups such as school administrators, or illegitimate groups such as with teacher strikes or student sit-ins. Most recently the model has been used by the federal government both by applying legislative mandates such as Title IX as well as by offering massive financial incentives. Illegitimate uses were most evident in the late 1960s when the community made wide use of this technique to demonstrate their concerns.

The limitations to this strategy, though, are best illustrated by the 1954 Supreme Court ruling on segregation.<sup>27</sup> That ruling was a power-coercive change strategy but its full realization is involving extensive use of the next strategy to be discussed, the normative-reeducative strategy. Power is occasionally very effective as a catalyst but in itself seldom brings lasting change. Even the power strategies which depend on incentives seem to have a limited effect, witness the widespread dissatisfaction with the federally funded Head Start program.

The normative-reeducative approach differs from the

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<sup>27</sup>Chin and Benne, "General Strategies for Effecting Changes in Human Systems," p. 55.

other two strategies in that it emphasizes the change that is initiated from within the group or person rather than from without. It is an approach that has its roots in the therapeutic relationship postulated by Freud, and in John Dewey's interactive relationship with his environment.<sup>28</sup> Man is active and in quest of need satisfaction. He does not merely accept change but interacts with his world to cause change. The social psychologist who more than anyone was responsible for translating this orientation towards man into a theory of change was Kurt Lewin. He saw reeducation as a normative process, not just a cognitive and perceptual one. He also emphasized the active nature of behavioral change, seeing "behavior in an institutional setting, not as a static habit or pattern, but as a dynamic balance of forces working in opposite directions within the social-psychological space of the institution."<sup>29</sup>

The normative-reeducative approach puts more emphasis on the client system than on the change agent. A program of change is worked out by the client who may or may not need access to technical information. The change agent is often present, but his intervention is collaborative rather than directive. He, as well as his client, must learn to address nonconscious as well as conscious problems, and the methodology

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<sup>28</sup> Ibid., p. 43.

<sup>29</sup> Kenneth D. Benne and Max Birbaum, "Principles of Changing," The Planning of Change, p. 328.



he uses comes more from the behavioral sciences than it does from managerial sources.<sup>30</sup> The aim of this approach is to internalize the process of changing so that eventually the change agent becomes unnecessary.<sup>31</sup>

There are two major change strategies that fall within the normative-reeducative category: the T. Group approach and the problem-solving approach. The National Training Laboratories have pioneered the use of training groups as a method of addressing intergroup conflict and liberating the potential they feel any institutional group has for internal change. The presumption is that if a group is freed of normal responsibilities, allowed the freedom of a somewhat different environment, and given the services of a facilitator who will help the group explore the need for both personal and institutional change, then the group itself will generate the creative solutions necessary for lasting change. In Douglas McGregor's terminology, the Theory X aspect of people will be negated and their commitment to the process much more assured. The change agent still exists in this model but instead of being the source of knowledge or power, his role is much more ambiguous. He is a professional with only a marginal role in the group and must face risk and insecurity.<sup>32</sup> He facilitates

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<sup>30</sup>Chin and Benne, "General Strategies for Effecting Changes in Human Systems," p. 44.

<sup>31</sup>David Sheldon, "An Organic Problem-Solving Method of Organizational Change," The Planning of Change, p. 366.

<sup>32</sup>Bennis and Schein, "Principles and Strategies in the Use of Laboratory Training for Improving Social Systems," pp. 345-46.

but does not cause change which, in this model, is a product of group action.

The problem-solving strategy, which most recently has been at the heart of the organizational development movement, is a more structural way of approaching normative change. The assumption is that changes that are reality-oriented involve solving problems.<sup>33</sup> As with other normative-reeducative models, it is assumed that members, with training, are fully capable of solving the problems facing that group. The training procedures can involve skill in collecting data, articulating problems, using research and development personnel, and developing viable solutions to a range of social and technical problems.<sup>34</sup> Both internal and external change agents can be used but as with the T. groups, the aim is to internalize the capability of the organization to solve its own problems.

Because the normative-reeducative strategy depends much more on the behavioral sciences for its foundation, it is the strategy that most thoroughly investigates the phenomenon of resistance. Again much of the theoretical background stems from Lewin's force field theory which explores the change field from the defender's as well as the protagonist's point of view.<sup>35</sup>

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<sup>33</sup>Chin and Benne, "General Strategies for Effecting Changes in Human Systems," p. 46.

<sup>34</sup>Ibid.

<sup>35</sup>Donald Klein, "Some Notes on the Dynamics of Resistance to Change: The Defender's Role," The Planning of Change, p. 506.

Researchers such as Goodwin Watson<sup>36</sup> have researched both the cycle of resistance and the psychological motivation for it. Analyses such as this one have been instrumental in formulating strategies which are less likely to encounter resistance. Researchers tend to agree that resistance is less if:

1. group leaders feel it is their own
2. it reduces rather than adds to present burdens
3. it is in accord with group values
4. it offers new programs of interest
5. the autonomy and security of members are not threatened
6. the group has been in on the diagnosis
7. the solution was adopted by group consensus
8. proponents empathize with opponents
9. care is taken to recognize misperceptions
10. mutual trust exists
11. the process is open to revision.<sup>37</sup>

In general, researchers within the normative framework believe resistance is a normal phenomenon necessary to protect the system against unwarranted change. Their approach is to treat it as a valid concern worthy of the time and effort of the proponents.

Again the purpose of Chin and Benne's three-part model is not to demonstrate that any one strategy is better than all others, but rather to assist the investigator in analyzing the particular purpose for which the strategy is intended and in selecting an appropriate technique. The normative-reeducative

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<sup>36</sup> Goodwin Watson, "Resistance to Change," The Planning of Change, pp. 488-98.

<sup>37</sup> Ibid., p. 496.

strategy is the basis of the model developed in this paper though one will find elements of all three approaches. Different techniques are needed in the various stages of change and in the different constituencies to be affected. What is useful in influencing a volunteer group within the community may or may not be effective with the more formal school organization. Knowledge and outside expertise as well as both "carrot and stick" types of power strategies may be appropriate at various times. What is important is that one remains cognizant of the existence of "old math minds" and fully aware of the complex possibilities of dealing with that phenomenon.

## CHAPTER III

### COMMUNITY-SCHOOL INTERACTION

One of the most distinctive aspects of American education has been the fact that the process of change has, both theoretically and to a good extent politically, been controlled by local communities. The neighborhood school is one of America's cherished beliefs; yet to a good extent the neighborhood school of the late twentieth century is more myth than reality. The curriculum is quite often more reflective of the research of commercial textbook firms than it is of community concerns. A variety of social and economic changes, including the increasing suburbanization of America's cities, the rapid escalation of housing costs, the increasing mobility of the nuclear family, and the major integration decisions initiated by the federal government have frequently made the neighborhood itself an anachronism.

It is difficult at this juncture to make absolute value judgments about these changes. Busing is often defensible as a means of keeping property taxes down, as a mechanism for social change, and as a means for grouping children according to their individual needs. Similarly, national textbook concerns have infinitely more resources than individual

schools or communities. Few would argue that today's children have access to a better education than did their great grandparents of the little red schoolhouse days. Put in terms of the change strategies discussed in the last chapter, strategies based on the diffusion of expert knowledge or the use of power do have their place.

Yet there is discontent, discontent most recently embodied in the community education and the back-to-basics movements. In Linus' terms, America still has an "old math mind" and the neighborhood school where the old, comprehensible subjects are taught is a part of that psychological orientation. "What we are seeing is the beginning of a vast effort to decentralize the educational process, to place it back in the local community, in the parent groups, in the neighborhood, in the extended family groups which once controlled formal and informal education in most cultures."<sup>1</sup>

The question becomes to what extent is this renewed concern of Americans to regain control over their schools a valid assertion of the basis of American education and to what extent is it sentimental and potentially harmful nostalgia. It is in answering this question that the perspective of the community education movement is instructive. In contrast to the recent back-to-basics discussions, the community

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<sup>1</sup>Paul Olson, "Community Education: Effects on Local and World Community," Journal of Teacher Education 28, no. 4 (July-August 1977):14.

education movement has benefitted from a long history that consciously has attempted to integrate the idea of community participation into the complexities of twentieth-century life. Some critics may feel that the movement itself has become too complicated to be understandable to the groups it serves, but at least philosophically, the proponents of this concept have attempted to balance the nineteenth-century village mentality of families and neighbors with the realities of twentieth-century urban life. The history of this balancing act is of import primarily because the dual concern still exists.

The earliest forms of community education are found in rural areas where farmers perceived a need for self-improvement and in particular a need to understand new technological advances.<sup>2</sup> In fact this form of community-school interaction is still common in the developing portions of the world. The late nineteenth-century entrance of the federal government bolstered the alliance of farmers and schools with the development of land grant colleges and their agricultural extension offices. In terms of the change strategies discussed in the last chapter, the empirical-rational model was the theoretical foundation of that movement, just as it was fundamental to nineteenth-century education in general. Through the early years of the twentieth century, waves of new immigration brought a need for Americanization courses.

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<sup>2</sup>David Scanton, "Historical Roots for the Development of Community Education," Community Education: Principles and Practices from World-wide Experience (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1959), p. 38.

Though these courses were adult education courses conceptually, they remain outside of the community education movement because they were not developed out of the felt needs of the immigrants. Rather they were the result of the fears of earlier Americans about the strangeness of these new arrivals. Of all change strategies, the power-coercive approach has the least applicability for the community education movement.

The community education concept received a dual boost from the writings of John Dewey and his followers along with the economic necessities occasioned by the Depression. Joseph Hart in 1924 captured the essence of the interface among school, child and community which is a constant theme of the Progressives:

Education is not apart from life; . . . The democratic problem in education is not primarily a problem of training children; it is a problem of making a community within which children cannot help growing up to be democratic, intelligent, disciplined to freedom, reverent of the goals of life and eager to share in the task of the age. A school cannot produce the result; nothing but the community can do so.<sup>3</sup>

What the Progressive envisioned, the Depression made a necessity. A normative-reeducative change was at work with groups of community members developing changes which met their needs. Schools opened their doors to meet community needs, giving courses on topics such as home canning and offering

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<sup>3</sup>Maurice F. Seay, "Threads Running Through the Community School Movement," Community Education Journal 2 (February 1972):18.



school facilities to the community for recreational purposes.<sup>4</sup> The federal government again gave a boost to the concept through the Tennessee Valley Authority (T.V.A.) which sponsored programs to retrain farmers to be electricians and carpenters and incidentally to teach them to read.<sup>5</sup> Through the Depression and World War II citizens increasingly used the schools to meet community needs until such time as they could be met elsewhere.

It was during this decade that the idea of community-school interaction began to be important in urban as well as rural communities, and as a by-product became connected with the Foundation that still provides much of the innovative funding for the idea. Citizens in Flint, Michigan developed a program to combat juvenile delinquency during the late 1920s. The program began as an outdoor education program and later expanded to a much more complex model using schools to help citizens to work together in an urban society.<sup>6</sup> By 1933, the Flint program involved an outdoor education experience for 800 boys, and in 1936 attracted the attention of the Charles Stewart Mott Foundation. This Foundation, using the Flint program as a basis, has provided much of the initial funding for new community education programs.

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<sup>4</sup>James M. Thrasher, "The Community School: A Perspective," Community Education Journal 4 (November-December 1974): 11.

<sup>5</sup>Seay, p. 16.

<sup>6</sup>David S. Beavers, "Historical Flashback," Community Education Journal 2 (February 1972):27.

Throughout the 1940s and '50s the emphasis of community education programs remained on using the schools for after-school recreation and adult education courses. In the 1960s, however, the concept broadened considerably both in its definition and in its numbers. With the heightened awareness of the complex economic, social and psychological needs of a multitude of groups, the schools felt a need to expand their concerns beyond the usual K-12 confines. There was a need to develop a process as well as a program. "The new view of community education incorporated the value of particular programs and activities to meet specified and unique needs, but also built in a new emphasis - that of involving community residents in a new working relationship with existing institutions and agencies to combine forces in attacking community problems."<sup>7</sup> The idea was to use the school as the center of the community, coordinating the work of other agencies and allowing citizens to affect their own destinies. People living in places as distinct as urban ghettos and Indian reservations wanted to insure that their schools were more responsive to their needs and more involved in the concrete problems facing that community. They envisioned a movement not just involved in after-school programs but one that compliments and extends the K-12 offerings.<sup>8</sup>

The numerical and institutional growth of the community

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<sup>7</sup>Jack D. Minsey and Clyde E. LeTarte, "Community Education: Where to Now?" Journal of Teacher Education 28 (July-August 1977):28.

<sup>8</sup>Ibid.

education movement was also rapid during the 1960s. The Mott Foundation estimated in 1974 that community education involved 400 school systems with 3,000 buildings and 9 million people.<sup>9</sup> To serve this expanded population the National Community School Education Association (N.C.S.E.A.) was founded in 1966, again with Mott Foundation funding. The N.C.S.E.A. publishes a journal and was instrumental in establishing new university training programs for community school personnel.<sup>10</sup>

The extensive lobbying of this organization was in part responsible for expanding the long-standing federal role in the community education movement. In 1974, the Education Amendments included the Community Schools Act, the preamble of which is indicative of the expanded role of the school and the vitality of the concept:

In recognition of the fact that the school, as the prime educational institution of the community, is most effective when the school involves the people of that community in a program designed to fulfill their educational needs, and that community education promotes a more efficient use of public education facilities through an extension of school buildings and equipment, it is the purpose of this section to provide educational, recreational, cultural and other related community services, in accordance with the needs, interests and concerns of the community through the establishment of the community education program as

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<sup>9</sup>William F. Crinshaw, "Mott Foundation Announces Creation of Community Education Board of Advisors," Community Education Journal 4 (March-April 1974):32.

<sup>10</sup>Jack D. Munsey, "The Organization for Community School Educators," Community Education Journal 1 (February 1971): 17-19.

a center for such activities in cooperation with other groups.<sup>11</sup>

Thus the concept of community education has grown from the little red schoolhouse to a movement complete with a complex private-public bureaucracy. It has also developed from a simple extension of the school day for recreational purposes to a complex philosophy equally concerned with the quality of education inside the school and the needs of the community outside. Proponents, essentially extending the work of Dewey, see community education as a philosophy which better meets the needs of the child. The philosophy recognizes the fact that education is a lifelong continuous process which inevitably involves the community. "In reality it is the whole community that educates the child. It is the community that provides the climate for learning. Education must therefore concern itself with the whole community, seeking constantly to involve its resources and improve the whole environment."<sup>12</sup> Children need the sense of identity that comes from close community ties, the sense that "no young person stands - or feels that he stands - alone."<sup>13</sup> Proponents feel that "the Community school with its control, situation, intergenerational structure, and hopefully, size is equipped to deal with such problems as the aimlessness and

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<sup>11</sup>"U.S. Congress Passes First Federal Legislation to Support Community Education," Community Education Journal 4 (September-October 1974):5-6.

<sup>12</sup>Beavers, p. 17.

<sup>13</sup>Olson, p. 13.

alienation of youth."<sup>14</sup>

Community education is concerned with more than the child, however. It is a philosophy that recognizes the fundamental interaction between community and the child, that a healthy community with a firm sense of its own identity is important to all its members. Major components of this philosophy thus include:

1. Life long learning experiences based on community members needs and interests
2. Use of human, physical and financial resources of the community
3. Interagency cooperation
4. Involvement of community members
5. Life centered curriculum that focuses on the direct concerns, values and issues.<sup>15</sup>

The environmental education program at Prescott, as well as those that will be described in the next chapter, belong very much within this philosophical framework. Their goals encompass lifelong learning and involvement with a life-centered issue. Because of its complexity, the environmental issue necessarily involves interaction with a variety of community groups and use of all the resources available. Nor is this concern with the environment merely the concern of affluent white communities. There is a growing recognition by black urbanites and other minorities that environmental hazards are highest in the inner cities and that community control needs to address control of

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<sup>14</sup>Ibid., p. 14.

<sup>15</sup>Philip A. Clark, "Community Education and Its Major Components," Journal of Teacher Education 28 (July-August 1977):7-8.

the environment as well as schools and government.<sup>16</sup>

Those involved in environmental education also feel that the concentration on a real community issue best meets the learning needs of the child as well. They emphasize the critical thinking skills involved in working with complex problems of pollution, and the necessary practice in developing a personal set of values essential to the formation of a "healthy, happy people."<sup>17</sup> Involvement with such issues can and should be integrated into the regular K-12 curriculum. "Of course the use of community resources cannot take the place of reading and writing and telling and spelling in the classroom, but always the learner must read something, write about something, tell about something, and spell words about something. When subject skills are taught in immediate relation to the learner's life concerns as experienced in the community, motivation for mastering the 'basics' is increased."<sup>18</sup>

Since environmental education programs fit so well into the school-community-child interaction envisioned by community educators, one would think that the processes developed in establishing community schools would be applicable

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<sup>16</sup>Dennis J. Clark, "Toward Community Control," Journal of Environmental Education 4 (Winter 1972):20-21.

<sup>17</sup>Thomas W. Offutt, "Community Problems: An Educational Opportunity," Environmental Education: Strategies Toward a More Liveable Future, eds. James A. Swan and William B. Stapp (New York: Halsted Press Division, 1974), pp. 32-37.

<sup>18</sup>Edward G. Olson, "Teacher's Role in Life-Centering the Curriculum," Journal of Teacher Education 28 (July-August 1977):17.

as well. In fact, most of the techniques seem inappropriate or unnecessarily complex to be used by the people they are intended for. The reason for this failure would seem to be in the perspective of the authors of these various models. In general the authors are community school administrators who are working from within the system, or they are teachers writing with a curriculum maker's perspective. Very rarely does one find a well-thought-out model which describes the role of community members from their own perspectives. The impetus for change comes from outside the community and thus is frequently not the normative-type change which is essential to that group.

The following fourteen-step process described by Tony Carrillo is a typical example of the administrative-curriculum model approach. Looking at the various steps one can glean some essential information but the process seems rather formal and, to say the least, formidable, to a person not trained in administration. The fourteen steps are as follows:

1. Request information about existing community schools.
2. Schedule a meeting of school personnel, community members and representatives of community agencies.
3. Schedule meeting with school administrators of pilot schools.
4. Schedule exploratory meetings with the school board.
5. Send steering committee members to visit other schools.
6. Schedule meeting with the whole staff of the school.
7. Schedule meeting of community residents and community agency personnel.

8. Get formal adoption of the program.
9. Select directors.
10. Train directors.
11. Implement the initial phase.
12. Establish a Community Advisory Council.
13. Initiate a study of the wants and needs of the community.
14. Establish evaluation procedures.<sup>19</sup>

Without going into the merits of this or similar models, one can see that they presuppose the existence of a well-funded organization with skilled personnel. Community members can scan such lists and gather the essential need to keep in close contact with all facets of the community. However, if the process is to originate in the community, it must be more manageable and less dependent on fulltime professional direction at least in its initial stages.

Thus to return to the original question, it would seem that the basic philosophy of the community education movement is extremely relevant to the complex problems facing late twentieth-century Americans. Increasingly Americans are attempting to regain control over the major forces that rule their lives, and one of those forces is the school. The philosophy of the community education movement as it has been elaborated in recent years, very much addresses these needs. However, the methodology of the movement seems appropriate more for the institution than for the community. Much of it may be useful for the established community schools, but it is for the most

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<sup>19</sup>Tony S. Carrillo, "Strategies for Establishing a Community Education Program in Any Town, U.S.A.," Community Education Journal 3 (January 1973):6-9.



part incomprehensible to community members.

On the other hand, the methodology of the nineteenth-century village is inadequate also. There is a need to develop a normative-reeducative strategy that allows for the possibility of community school interaction and at the same time allows for enough professional direction to function in our mobile twentieth-century society. The four programs discussed in the next chapter all have important elements of this type of change strategy. They all are true community programs which in time have developed unique processes that allow for steady growth without losing touch with the communities they serve.

## CHAPTER IV

### A TALE OF FOUR CITIES

The four programs described below have much in common along with some important differences. Three of the programs are set in what is often termed "beautiful country." Hanover, New Hampshire is a small town located in the Connecticut River Valley and not far from the White Mountains. Madison is situated amidst five Wisconsin lakes and Missoula is surrounded by the Rocky Mountains. Ironically, Urbana, Illinois, which has perhaps the most successful program of all four cities, measures its surroundings in dollars rather than aesthetics. The farmland near Urbana is some of the richest in the world, too rich to be allowed to remain in its natural state. The people in Urbana, perhaps because of its location, have much less sensitivity to environmental problems than do members of the other communities, yet again this initial problem has not seemed to affect the growth of the programs there.

As will be shown, the four programs are linked conceptually; they also share a personal link. The person most responsible for the Urbana program got her training in Madison and is currently beginning work in Missoula. The author was involved in the Hanover program, has had a long

acquaintanceship with the Urban program through a mutual friend, and is currently working with the Missoula program. The reader may feel this personal information is irrelevant, but in fact it is another central theme of this paper. These programs have worked because they are built through personal interaction, through people who know people and share common concerns. This chapter will attempt to describe that interaction by trying to capture the full flavor of groups of friends and neighbors working together for their children, their schools and their community.

#### Madison, Wisconsin

Of all the cities, Madison has the strongest record of environmental awareness. Some of America's most famous naturalists including John Muir and Aldo Leopold made their homes there. The first environmental journal was published there in 1960, almost a decade before the environment became an "in" issue. The city has a fifty-year tradition of interest in conservation, a university active in that field and a citizenry well exposed to the issues. Despite this high level of awareness, Madison still does not have a fully organized environmental curriculum in the schools. However, the schools do have access to a wide variety of interesting programs, and the process through which these programs were developed is instructive to those who would like to establish similar programs.

The center of the environmental education programs both historically and today is the Arboretum, a 1200-acre area now owned by the University of Wisconsin. As early as 1892, the Madison Park and Pleasure Drive Association began to acquire the land which eventually became the Arboretum. The first five hundred acres were dedicated in 1934, followed by an intensive decade of more acquisition and restoration of native species. Leopold and others provided the leadership and the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) donated much of the labor.

By 1966, the Friends of the Arboretum had established a guide program and groups of school children regularly toured the grounds. The program was self-supporting with the schools paying the guides a small fee for their services. However, the guides lacked formal training and there were not enough talented, and not too busy, naturalists available to meet the ever-increasing need. The solution to the problem and the genesis of the idea that is still central to all the programs described here was the marriage of the Field Guide program and a group called rather prosaically the Friday Morning Study Group. This group of women began meeting in 1966, once a week at the Arboretum with a botanist and a "self taught birder." They would study for an hour on a topic of mutual interest and then spend the rest of the morning hiking. In 1967, the Friday Morning Group absorbed the Field Guide program and thus transformed itself into a guide

training program. Concurrently, it became the Thursday and Friday Morning Study Groups in order to meet the increasing need. The Friday Morning Group kept its identity as a hiking group, however. As will be seen, the continuing identity of the parent community groups is an important part of the process in all of the cities studied. The program still goes on; a Guide Training Manual has been developed, and the program still is the focal part of the Madison program. "Like a chop of water in a pool, the ripples of this teaching have extended on and on. As many as 16,000 people are conducted along the Arboretum trails every year; school children, nature study groups, visitors from all over the world."<sup>1</sup>

Another facet of the program is a very popular extension course called "Reading the Landscape," offered several times a year through the Madison Vocational Technical College. It is a twenty-session course which became another aspect of the guide training program and a useful mechanism for boosting the self-confidence of interested people to a level where they felt comfortable in taking groups of children on field trips. Many of the Friday Morning women took the course and served as guides.

Recently, the "Reading the Landscape" course has been transferred to the Arboretum's new McKay Center, a public

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<sup>1</sup>Nancy D. Sachse, A Thousand Ages: The University of Wisconsin Arboretum (Madison: Regents of the University of Wisconsin, 1965), p. x.

interpretation area where slide shows, exhibits, resource materials, a library, and classrooms are available to groups using the Arboretum. According to Rosemary Fleming, the naturalist who now serves as the coordinator of these programs, the chief purpose of the Arboretum is research and teaching. "However we recognize an understanding public is our best insurance for the future - thus we try to help them enjoy and learn - so they will appreciate and protect this valuable resource."<sup>2</sup>

The naturalists trained by the Arboretum and the "Reading the Landscape" course are also the mainstay of the Madison School Environmental Education program. The schools have been the recipient of three hundred acres of oak forest, named the Madison School Forest, which together with the Arboretum prairie lands and a newly acquired area, the Cherokee Marsh, provide a wide variety of natural sites for school children to explore. The naturalists serve as guides for the children, an arrangement which is beneficial to both groups. According to school naturalist Virginia Kline, "the seasonal part-time nature of the work offers mothers a stimulating outlet and supplementary income while not straining the school budget with full-time employees."<sup>3</sup> The School Forest is also

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<sup>2</sup>Rosemary Fleming, personal correspondence, June 15, 1978.

<sup>3</sup>Virginia Kline, "Panel on Prairie Education: A Forest for Learning" (Madison: Curriculum Department, Madison Public Schools, n.d.), p. 192.

the site of the Work-Learn program for ninth-grade students and the school camping program, mostly used by fifth and sixth graders. In June the Forest hosts the School Forest Institute, a concentrated outdoor experience for teachers.<sup>4</sup>

Though Madison is extraordinarily rich in both natural and human talent available for its children, it is just beginning to develop full coordination of these opportunities with the regular school program. As the school naturalist puts it, "There is always a need for improved activities designed to involve children and adults more deeply during the trip experience and for better preparation and follow-up in the classroom in the as-yet-unfunded full-time position of outdoor education specialist in the public schools."<sup>5</sup> The schools are also beginning to form a cooperative arrangement with the Madison Parks Department to identify natural areas within walking distance of each school and thus make outdoor education a more everyday activity.

There are a number of components in Madison's program that will be found in the other cities as well. One is the existence of a group of people who share an interest, enjoy the same activities and are friends. The second is a mechanism for training the members of the group and recruiting others. In Madison, the Community College with its extension course and the Arboretum with its training program perform

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<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 194.

this function. It is important that the training program be perceived as interesting and nonthreatening to the amateur enthusiast. It also, for efficiency's sake, needs the organizational services of paid personnel. A final component which will be seen in some of the other programs is an institution and process for linking these well-established programs to the school curriculum. Tentative beginnings have been made in this direction in Madison but the city still lacks a fully developed K-12 environmental education curriculum.

#### Urbana, Illinois

In contrast to Madison, Urbana in 1970 had little tradition of interest in ecology. According to a local resident, the citizens had a "corn and soy bean mentality" and thought of their land in terms of dollars per square foot. Virtually the only virgin prairie left near the city was around cemeteries or along railroad tracks, and little interest existed in establishing natural areas. Today, however, there is a very active environmental program for both schools and the community, a program which is now expanding beyond city borders and is beginning to involve the county as well.

As in Madison, the process began with a hiking-study group. In the Fall of 1970, a group of women began exploring the surrounding area, taking specialists along with them whenever they could. By the Spring of 1971, they were calling themselves the Natural Areas Study Group and were taking



occasional groups of kindergartners and first graders to local parks and woods. The following year the program became official with a former resident of Madison, Ann Feyerharm, becoming coordinator of the tours. That year guides took several hundred school children on tours, charging \$2.00 an hour. They specified eight to ten children to a guide along with a volunteer mother and tried to keep the younger groups down to no more than seven children. By the 1972-73 school year, the number of children had doubled and the next year over a thousand children were involved. The program was fast becoming unmanageable for its volunteer organizers.

The guide training program also began as a volunteer effort with local experts donating their time. The first programs in 1972 were held on the site and an attempt was made to involve university students as well. This attempt was abandoned, however, because of the students' lack of reliability; the Natural Areas Study Group is still the core of the guide program. In 1972, a "Reading the Landscape" course was offered through Parkland Junior College, and members of the Study Group turned out in force. Thus two facets of the Madison program had their tentative beginnings, but an essential component was missing; the entire administration of the program was volunteer and the effort was outgrowing the confines of the coordinator's kitchen study.

In Urbana, it is the Park District that eventually provided the professional element that is so necessary to the

success of any program. The Park District showed great interest in environmental issues in contrast to the Madison Park Department which, until recently, concentrated on recreation. Thus, when a school closed in 1972, the Urbana Park District was approached by a number of environmental groups, including the Natural Areas Study Group which was expanding its activities to include lobbying, to convert part of the school into an environmental education center. The Thornburn Environmental Awareness Center opened the following spring, beginning a unique partnership between the Park District and the schools. The school rents the facilities to the Park District for \$1.00 a year. The Park District provides programs and services for the schools and uses their facilities after school for its other programs.

The opening of the center did not replace the work of the volunteer groups but did provide a focal point in coordinating efforts. Currently six major environmental groups are associated with the center including another homegrown group entitled Households Involved in Pollution Solution (HIPS). This group donated its library to the center and one of its members became the volunteer librarian. The local Audubon Society was heavily involved in the work in the center. Some of its members led guide training sessions and hiked with members of the Natural Areas Study Group.

The field guide program, however, was still an entirely volunteer effort, and the rest of the program was run as a part

of the Park District without the benefit of full-time professional leadership. In 1973, the group got its first real assistance from the schools in the form of financial support for the guide training sessions. Up until this time the group had depended on volunteer time from experts. Group members were becoming more aware that they had to spend time in the schools, attending teachers' and principals' meetings in order to get support for their program.

In the meantime, the group continued its volunteer efforts and began to develop materials for classroom use in addition to their field program. In 1973, they developed a slide-tape set entitled "Spring Comes to the Woods." Members collected slides from a variety of sources, researched each slide and put together two commentaries, one for use in the lower elementary grades and one for the upper grades. In addition they made a "fun, touchy, feely" box to accompany the slides. The following year they put together a similar set on the prairie.

1974 and 1975 were key years in insuring secure institutionalization of the programs and providing paid assistance. In 1974, the Park District hired one of the volunteer guides to be tour coordinator. The Natural Areas Group still provides direction for the program but has been relieved of the day to day administrative duties. Members turned their energies then to serving on key boards, such as the Park District Board and its counterpart for the county, the County Forest Preserve Board. Thus, in 1975 when the Park District decided to hire

a naturalist to coordinate all the environmental education programs, members of the group participated in the interviewing process, and as a result were pleased with the choice of candidates. The person hired is personable and good at working with school personnel and community members.

Currently the center operates a wide variety of programs for the schools and community. Tours of local natural areas and urban environments continue; three guide training courses are offered; teacher workshops and a newsletter are a regular part of the program; the library houses a vertical file, teaching materials, and handouts as well as books; a number of courses are offered with such titles as "City Critters" and "Organic Gardening," and a variety of day camp experiences are offered during the summer.<sup>6</sup> In May 1978, ground was broken for a new building, built with local, Park District, and federal funds. The building will be located on the edge of Busey Woods, the main natural area in Urbana. Fittingly the center will be named the Anita Parker Purves Nature Center in memory of a member of the Natural Areas Study Group who served on the Park District Advisory Board and also taught an enrichment class after school.

Members of the community groups are now reasonably satisfied with Urbana's program, and are increasingly spending their energies encouraging the formation of similar programs in the county. Beginning in 1974, they got the county

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<sup>6</sup>"Urbana Park District, 1978" (Urbana, Ill.: Urbana Park District, 1978).

superintendent of schools to fund teacher workshops at the Thornburn Center. In the summer of 1975, the county hired a naturalist who works with schools outside of Urbana. The County Forest Preserve Board, whose membership includes members of various environmental groups, built a nature center near one of the county's major natural areas and plans to hire several more naturalists in the near future. Coordination with other programs has been a concern also. At the urging of community members, the two naturalists now meet frequently and issue a joint newsletter for all teachers. The Conservation Education Council, consisting of teachers, members of leading environmental groups, superintendents and principals was founded to coordinate the many programs available.

The Urbana program obviously has a much larger and more complex community component than the program operating in Madison, yet it shares some similar characteristics. The continuing source of innovation is a closely knit group of community members who share a variety of interests and enjoy similar activities. It is interesting to note that as the Park District began to provide paid services and facilities, it did not take over the role of these various groups. Rather it retained the groups and their programs intact, provided them with administrative assistance, and still relies heavily on their volunteer efforts.

Another aspect of the process in Urbana is the increasing awareness on the part of community members of the importance of facilitating communication. Though it would be difficult to

document this informal, neighborly process, members of these environmental groups spent an increasing amount of time in the schools, going to teachers' and principals' meetings, serving on various boards, testifying at public meetings, and through a series of interrelated personal contacts, connecting all the various groups involved in environmental education.

The nature of the institutionalization of the Urbana programs is also a key element. It seems important that a community education program such as this one find a home outside of, but connected to, the schools. The unique partnership of the Park District and the schools along with the shared funding is part of the reason for the success of the program. Community groups do need the assistance of professionals but understandably do not want to become a formal part of a school system, subject to the myriad of rules governing public education. Volunteerism is not sufficient for a program as complex as Urbana's, but total professionalization would eliminate many very talented people from participating regularly. It is equally important that the institutional home of the program have close professional ties with the schools. The Arboretum in Madison is an outside institution but it does not see itself in a coordinating role as does the Park District in Urbana. It would seem that one of the keys to a successful community-school interaction is to identify a facilitating organization which has some access to funds, has expertise and interest in

dealing with the schools, and yet remains responsive and accessible to community members.

#### Hanover, New Hampshire

Though there is no personal tie between the Urbana and Hanover programs, they share many common components. Hanover's program had its beginnings in 1969, when a new elementary school was being built adjacent to one of the town's largest natural areas. A group of teachers and citizens began discussing the possibility of developing environmental education programs that would make full use of the school's setting. Fairly soon these discussions were formalized with the formation of a planning committee of teachers, community members, and a school board member to consider environmental programs for all the schools in the town. The committee surveyed teachers and came up with the following list of difficulties that might confront those who would like to establish such a program:

1. The science of ecology is relatively new, and few teachers have had any exposure to its concepts in the course of their formal training.
2. Teachers, especially of elementary aged children, have only rarely been exposed to techniques for field work, and almost never to multidisciplinary problem-solving approaches.
3. Teachers cannot constructively cope with as large numbers of students in a field situation as in the classroom. For example, teachers feel that five to seven elementary students with a leader makes an effective working unit.
4. Teachers often do not think of the out-of-doors as a means of carrying out classroom objectives. With the necessary help, outdoor activities may be very effective in initiating, implementing, and extending the classroom program.

5. A large percentage of teachers are familiar neither with the natural history nor the social structure of the towns in which they teach. This may be because they are newcomers or because they lack prior interest or exposure. They are "uncomfortable" outside the safety of their classrooms.
6. Teachers do not know what area resources-both human and physical-are available to them.<sup>7</sup>

To this list should be added the fact that the three towns initially involved are small towns with considerable rural poverty and are almost totally dependent on local property taxes for the support of the schools. Any solution envisioned would have to be relatively cheap.

Thus the initial phase of the program was a field aide program, this time staffed with unpaid volunteers. Its initiator was the chairman of the Hanover Conservation Council's Education Committee, Allie Quinn, a semi-public organization which provided some services to a town which at that time had no town park or recreation program. In addition, this woman was an active member of a number of town organizations and thus in close contact with numerous small interest groups. The first training program was held in the Fall of 1970. The Conservation Council and a small New Hampshire foundation called New Hampshire Tomorrow provided the limited funding, but as in the early years in Madison and Urbana, most of the trainers donated their time and the budget was minimal.

By 1972, forty women had been trained and were at work

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<sup>7</sup>Allie Quinn, "A Manual For a Volunteer Field Aide Program" (Hanover, N.H.: Hanover Conservation Council, 1972), p. 5.



in the local schools. The training sessions were popular both with volunteers and the schools. The women enjoyed the opportunity of learning more about the ecology of the local area in a class with their friends and neighbors. The final sessions of that year also began to include teachers as well as volunteers. Teachers also were quite enthusiastic about the program:

From a busy teacher's standpoint, the Field Aides help us expand our present science activities. They round up materials; upon request, they have come in the day before to plan with the teacher, or to evaluate afterward. They will work indoors, too, with plants, aquaria and terraria, or any ecology study that works best in small groups. They see the classroom and the children as they are; they note needs for materials; invariably they are the school's strongest supporters.<sup>8</sup>

However, the program was still a shoestring operation. That year the coordinator put together an extensive Manual for a Field Aide Training Program; her labor was free; printing costs were borne by the two organizations mentioned above. The manual is an extremely useful "how to do it" manual for those interested in establishing new programs as well as including an extensive curriculum for a fifteen-session training program. The section on "How much will such a course cost and how can it be financed?" is perhaps the best description of the Hanover Program at that time:

The cost of running such a course will vary according to the situation. It could involve instructors' fees or expenses, materials for course participants, paid release time for a teacher-director and a course and/or program

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<sup>8</sup>Ibid., p. 3.

coordinator. If necessary, however, it should be possible to set up a course requiring little or no direct financial outlay.

Instructors for the various class sessions are often available without fee, . . . Materials can usually be reproduced within the school system. . . . If necessary, a small fee could be charged course participants to cover these costs.

If a competent volunteer is willing to take on the duties of course coordinator, the amount of time required from a course director or other school personnel should not be significant. . . .<sup>9</sup>

It is, in a word, a manual on how to scrounge.

Again though, the program was outgrowing its volunteer status and in 1972-73 came under the wing of the Regional Center for Educational Training, a teacher center established in 1967 with federal funds to help mobilize the resources of Dartmouth College for a cooperative group of nine supervisory unions in New Hampshire and Vermont. As such, the program became the Elementary-Middle School Environmental Education (E.M.S.E.E.) or as Center members fondly call it, part of the "alphabet soup."

The Center, because of its organization as well as its personnel, was uniquely suited to handling the program. Like the Park District in Urbana, the Center is not a formal part of the school system but has close ties with it. It considers itself a "holding company" which houses semi-autonomous programs each with its own staff and budget. Thus the Field Aide Program did not lose its identity when it came

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<sup>9</sup>Ibid., p. 11.

to the Center nor did it sever its ties with the Conservation Council. The former volunteer coordinator became a regular staff member at the Center and continues to administer the program with the help of one other graduate of the guide training program.

The association of the environmental education program with other Center programs has been particularly productive. Very early it got involved in the Museum Ongoing Venture in Education (M.O.V.E.) which is a program that has developed a wide variety of multisensory materials, each conveniently boxed with explanatory materials for teachers. The staffs of the two programs have worked jointly to develop a number of science MOVE kits which are available to all member schools. Similarly, the environmental education program benefitted from close contact with the Staff Development Cooperative (S.D.C.) which provides inservice training to area schools. EMSEE has developed a number of community-school workshops, conferences, and university credit courses. The newest association has been with the Montshire Museum of Science (M.M.S.) which since 1976 has been housed along with the expanded Regional Center in a converted bowling alley. The museum is a result of Dartmouth College's decision to give away its natural science collection and is a unique "touch-see-feel" museum used by school children as well as community groups.

Thus the program now has facilities for indoor museum classes, outdoor sites, and indoor classroom work. In addition,

it has added a strong emphasis on curriculum development and a very active inservice component which involves teachers and administrators as well as the original field aides. Yet it has not lost its contact with the community, primarily because the Center staff includes many former volunteers who remain active in their community groups. It is also a very accessible, busy, rather crowded, and pleasingly messy place where one is as likely to encounter a friend as one is to stumble across a stuffed moose.

Some comparisons come inevitably to mind as one analyzes the three programs presented so far. Of the three, the Hanover program has the closest ties to the school system and perhaps the strongest curriculum development and inservice training programs. Urbana's Park District and many of the groups associated with it have a much stronger community education and natural areas preservation component. The differences reflect among other things differences in the communities. Hanover is a very environmentally aware community and many other organizations are involved in land preservation, while Urbana has a greater need both to add land to the parks and to educate its citizens. Madison is closer to Hanover in its needs but to date has not found as good a mechanism for coordinating its program with the schools.

Hanover's program started out more from school impetus than community interest, though both factors were involved. From the beginning teachers and administrators were involved

in the discussions. The needs assessment carried out by the originating committee is a reflection of the closer affiliation of the schools and community organizations. Though probably the same needs and concerns would have been articulated in Madison and Urbana, it is nonetheless important to see those needs described, and programs developed expressly to meet those needs.

Many aspects of the three programs are similar though. First of all the programs began as small ideas capable of being nursed through their initial stages by one person, and if necessary, one unpaid person. In Urbana and Hanover this initial phase lasted four years until paid institutional support became available. The expansion phase of the program thus came after a fairly long process that had solid roots in the community. These two programs also share a common organizational pattern in that the parent institution considers its role as a facilitator and coordinator of existing groups rather than a directive administrator of programs. Therefore, community connections have been maintained and enhanced through the help of paid administrative assistance. People in both communities still feel that the program belongs to them and is one they can participate in.

#### Missoula, Montana

The Missoula program is still too new to be analyzed in depth but some of the same elements are working there, though

new techniques have also been incorporated as well. The process began predictably with the formation of a hiking group in the Fall of 1976 by Ann Feyerharm, the former tour coordinator from Urbana. Simultaneously, the group made an effort to identify experts and as often as possible to invite them to join the hiking group. A nationally known radio commentator on wild foods often joined the group along with a geologist and an historian. By the following year the hiking group had grown measurably, and a few members were beginning to help local teachers with field trips to nearby natural areas. To date, however, there has been no formal guide training. During recent discussions with the Missoula Parks and Recreation Director, strong hope was expressed that an Outdoor Education Specialist could be hired in Fall 1978 to train guides for leading field trips into nearby natural areas.

In the Fall of 1977, the principal of Prescott School approached Mrs. Feyerharm to ask for help in developing an outdoor classroom on Mt. Jumbo. After several meetings with the principal and interested teachers, it seemed that what the school needed was not formal site development but more training and help in exploring the natural areas around the school. In the end the school applied for and received a minigrant of \$500 from the district to construct a mobile cart containing a wide variety of environmental resources.

The process of developing the materials for the cart was an interesting one involving both community members and

teachers. Both felt that there was no need to develop a completely new environmental education curriculum; rather one could identify many excellent existing materials, organizing and adapting them for the school. Thus the people involved in the project collected materials from a variety of sources. From various educational sources, the University, the State Department of Education, the district and county curriculum directors, and from other schools, they amassed a number of curriculum guides. Other public agencies such as the National Forest, the Soil Conservation Service, the Fish and Game Department, and the City Health Department also contributed materials. Local environmental groups contributed information and lists of experts. Community members were identified who had done research on the ecology of the area.

Once the materials had been gathered, the problem was to adapt them for the lower elementary grades and to organize the materials so that teachers could use them easily. The adaptation phase was a joint project involving teachers, who helped judge the readability of materials, and members of the hiking group who either did original research on particular areas near the school or condensed the work of university researchers for use by the school. The coordinator then did what is informally known as a "cut and paste job," selecting appropriate materials by subject, packaging them in large cardboard folders and cataloguing the contents.

The resulting cart was introduced to teachers at an inservice workshop in May 1978. Hiking group members described

the particular materials they had developed. Teachers were introduced to the relatively simple mechanisms for using the materials and the more important ongoing evaluation process. Teachers will be asked to comment on each lesson plan they use and suggest particular adaptations that could be made for the school site or for a particular age group.

Several plans exist for future work in Missoula, but the long-range dimensions of the program are still a matter of speculation. Several outdoor workshops will be held for teachers at the various sites near the schools during different seasons of the year to better familiarize teachers with precise things to look for outdoors. A "Mountain Landscapes" course is scheduled to began Fall 1978. The course will be offered through the Continuing Education Division of the University of Montana with Ann Feyerharm as coordinator. Funding will be provided by the Montana Committee for the Humanities and course fees. Involved in the planning have been representatives from local environmental groups, the Parks and Recreation Department, the Forestry School, and the University staff. The hiking group will continue to hike and several of the members will no doubt continue to take groups of children on field trips.

Several unpredictable factors will influence the eventual outcome of the program. The community impetus is still in its volunteer stage and highly dependent on the energies and interests of a handful of people. Should their interest continue,



one could predict a well-organized group training program beginning within a year, with acceptance and support by a growing number of district schools within two or three years.

The eventual continuance of the program would depend on finding the right institutional base for the program. The Parks and Recreation Department has expressed some interest in environmental programs and a group of teachers, aided by a member of the hiking group, recently received federal funds to establish a teacher center. Both might be possible locations for the program as might be the county environmental education program which already retains the service of a curriculum consultant.

Another unpredictable factor is the extent to which the Prescott project will be used as it was intended as a model for the district's other elementary schools. The district has had several other model environmental education projects which have, so far, not been used beyond the confines of the school in which they originated; one, in fact, is no longer in use because the teacher involved moved to another district. The position of district curriculum coordinator is currently vacant and much of the impetus for dispersal of the idea will depend on the interests of the new coordinator. Also, even for the program to succeed at Prescott, teachers must take the time to integrate the materials into their regular curriculum, a process that will depend on incentives from the principal and the continued interest and support of the hiking group.

Thus Missoula could within two years have a fairly extensive environmental education program with a well-organized guide training program, inservice workshops for teachers, joint development of materials and a community education facet as well. Conversely there could be only a mobile cart in one school (perhaps in use and perhaps not) with a small group of women continuing to hike. The crucial phase for all of the programs reviewed here came in the transition from volunteer to a semi-professional status. That phase is in the future for Missoula and will probably be as important as it has been in other cities to the eventual success of the program.

In comparing all four of the model programs, it is important to note the role of the university in each. The university does influence the programs but in none of the cities has it been the dominating force in either initiating or administering the programs. Its presence in these four cities has generally been important as a source of competent volunteer labor, both of experts and organizers. Occasionally, as in the case of Dartmouth College, it has donated materials as well. However, only one of the universities so far has offered a relevant extension course; generally nearby community colleges have provided these services. Similarly the source of institutionalization has not had any direct connection with the university. Thus it would seem that similar programs could be initiated in cities without major universities, though it may be somewhat more difficult to locate the volunteers to initiate

and staff the early phases of the programs.

Another common denominator to all of the programs is time. The process seems at the minimum to take five years before it is firmly established, and it can take a good deal longer. It needs dedicated volunteer effort to survive the first years, and the sponsorship of an organization with firm ties to both community and school to reach full maturity.

A last dimension of the programs which is just beginning in Missoula and Hanover is an emphasis on the active roles schools should play. In many ways the schools in Madison and Urbana have been consumers of programs developed and administered by other agencies. Though the schools had some input into the programs, they did not work as actively as community members on their formation. The Prescott and Hanover programs have the potential for much greater school participation. Teachers there should work at coordinating the activities with the rest of the curriculum in the school and eventually developing a sequential curriculum. Community programs can be a vital source of enrichment for the schools but until they become internalized within as well as outside of the schools, they will not have reached their full potential.

## CHAPTER V

### A MODEL: THE COMMUNITY-INITIATED CHANGING PROCESS

#### Assumptions

The four programs discussed in the last chapter are all philosophically within the community education movement, and more importantly, have developed a normative-reeducative process of changing that is uniquely suited to their needs. The model presented in the remainder of this paper is an attempt to conceptualize and refine this process of changing so that the procedures can be used by other communities and with other types of programs.

First, however, it is important to summarize both the theoretical assumptions behind this model and the limitations of its use. The assumption is basically Joseph Hart's that "education is not apart from life"<sup>1</sup> and that true education is as much a community function as it is the school's. Thus a major aim of those interested in improving education should be the involvement of schools and school children in the community. The child will be educated by the community in any case; the

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<sup>1</sup>Maurice F. Seay, "Threads Running Through the Community School Movement," Community Education Journal 2 (February 1972):18.

issue is more whether that education is planned, and the models for the child are among the best that the community can provide. Also at stake is whether the child sees the school as an integral part of his world, and thus is willing to live within its boundaries. Again the extent to which he sees the school as an extension of his family and neighborhood will determine whether he will accept or become alienated from its programs.

Though all of the models discussed in this paper are environmental education programs set in university towns, neither of these factors need be an essential limitation of the process to be described. The model is equally appropriate for programs dealing with many other social problems facing American communities. Racial and social problems, issues of urban growth, responsiveness and effectiveness of local government, problems of poverty and economic imbalance all are vital issues which could become the focus of a program similar to the environmental education programs described above. Other subjects currently offered in the schools which could benefit immensely from greater interaction with the community are career education, values clarification, fine arts, and local history programs.

The issue of the setting in a university town is more complicated. Though, as was demonstrated above, the university itself is not essential and often not even used in this type of program, certain characteristics of university towns

are important. The most crucial is a sense of community, with its corollary, a strong commitment to volunteer service. These characteristics do exist in most of America's villages, towns and moderate-sized cities as well as in the more established urban neighborhoods and suburbs. However, the model is of questionable value for urban ghettos and new suburbs where factors of mobility and alientation outweigh a commitment to place and social group. A valid criticism, then, of this model is that it does not address the problems of the urban poor. However, "Middle America" and middle-class Americans still are the dominant group in America and their communities deserve equal attention from researchers.

The model presented below sees the changing process as having four separate though often overlapping phases. Each of these phases includes a community as well as a school component and in each the interaction between the two is crucial. The phases are as follows:

1. The creation of awareness about the issue.
2. The conceptualization of the program and its trial on a voluntary basis.
3. The institutionalization of the porgram with planning for formal and expanded adoption.
4. The implementation of the program with plans for continued change.

Within each of these phases, the role of the change agent will be explored in relation to existing constituencies within the community and the school. The changing process

will be defined with particular emphasis on the interactive element. A further issue will be the definition of the differing types of change processes applicable to an established institution such as a school as compared to the more informal groups more typical of the community. Finally, the particular characteristics of the linking institution and the process of institutionalizing the changing process will be investigated.

Put another way, each of these sections will attempt to further define two essentially indefinable terms, a community and a process of changing. One must admit that key facets of the model cannot be transferred automatically from one situation to another. There are parts of the process that do depend entirely on the personality and energy of one or two people. Other parts depend on a very vaguely defined neighborly communications process. Thus one does ultimately have to take a few items on faith: that energetic committed people do exist and that a sense of neighborhood and community does operate in much of the country. The assumption of this paper is that these strengths are available, but that the schools often have made poor use of them. The process to be described is not so much concerned with the creation of these people but rather with their identification, training and organization. The aim is to describe a process that is of value both to the furthering development of the community and to the education of the children who live in that community.

Phase I: Awareness

Awareness begins with an issue and a person committed to doing something about that issue. In more sophisticated language the person is the change agent and the issue is the situation needing change. Much of the literature on change assumes that the commitment of the change agent is insured by paying the agent a salary and that the situation needing change is predetermined by the top administrators in the organization. Neither of these factors is true in the model presented here, and consequently some attention needs to be paid to the change agent's source of commitment and to the type of issue involved.

In all of the programs reviewed in this paper, and probably in a majority of similar programs throughout the country, the change agent is a woman. A generation ago this woman would most likely have been in her thirties or forties with her children in school and with a good amount of free time on her hands. Increasingly these older women have reentered the work force; today the change agent is more likely to be younger and quite encumbered by preschool children. Typically, the instigator of change has had either college or work experience or both and will begin work again when her children are older. The source of commitment, then, is as much a function of the life stage of these women as it is a function of the issue itself. Domestic concerns are important enough to keep her out of the labor force but not so time-consuming or personally satisfying to occupy her full-time. This analysis of



the typical change agent has two important implications. One is that the agent's commitment is liable to be fairly short, two or three years at the most. Secondly, the process developed must be flexible enough to accommodate the constant presence of toddlers.

A second group of change agents also has needs which must be taken into account in any model developed. Retired people increasingly are active in a wide variety of community programs and often enjoy close contact with school children. Women usually approach retirement with a long history of volunteer work along with an intricate awareness of their communities; men come with a wide variety of job skills. Again, though, their commitment to an issue is part-time and circumscribed by the desire to travel, to entertain family, to keep up with many lifelong activities, and by the problems of ill health.

Because of the particular characteristics of the change agent and the groups that she will involve most actively in the process, the choice of issue is important to the initiation of any lasting program. Obviously one reason why the change agents in the program described above have been women is because the schools are of immediate concern to them. Similarly the issue chosen must be, to a certain extent, local and immediate. That is not to say that the issue cannot, at the same time, be national as well as long-ranged. In fact, most important issues such as those involving the environment have both facets.

However, most community members are more likely to be engaged by the local embodiment of a larger problem and only come to a fuller understanding of the total issue through participation in its immediate aspect.

A successful change agent usually has an instinctive feeling for the need to start the process of increasing community awareness through exposure to local people, places and issues. The awareness can be of the occupational talents of various people in the community, the cultural resources in the town, the variety of natural areas available, or the importance of a social issue such as environmental pollution or racial discrimination. The important factor is that the awareness begin with a concrete concern which can be translated into a resource for a particular school.

The techniques used by the change agent to increase community awareness obviously differ depending on the community and the issue. Common to all, however, is the fact that the process starts with personal communication through small groups. Much later the change agent may use more sophisticated techniques such as large conferences or the media. Key to the initiation of the process, though, is securing the commitment of a large enough group of people to carry the program through its tenuous, volunteer beginnings. Such a commitment can only be secured by activating the internal resources of each potential member through the slow process of reeducation.

Two variations of this group technique were used in the four programs discussed above. The Madison, Urbana and Missoula programs started with the formation of a new group and much later coordinated their work with other more formal groups. The Hanover program was initiated by a small group within a well-established organization and then at a later stage formed a new group. Obviously the choice of technique depends on the issue and on the existing resources of the community, though it does seem likely that the change agent will at some time be involved in both processes.

All of the cartoon stereotypes of ladies' coffees to the contrary, the art of forming a new group, particularly one that will demand a good amount of free labor from its participants, is a complicated process and one that demands a great deal of understanding of and sensitivity to a particular community. Coffees or luncheons may be important in one town; a hiking group might work in another; a no-nonsense business meeting in a third. The essential factor is that the initial contacts must not appear to be threatening or demanding; on the contrary they need to offer meaningful activity coupled with friendly contacts with people interested in similar pursuits. The retention and recruitment of members into established groups also demand an equal balancing of social and task-related activities. The major talent of the change agent is in determining the proper mixture for that particular group and that community.

Maintenance of the group once formed is also an art which is stereotyped by endless cartoons of ladies on the telephone. However, it is probably the women who head volunteer service groups who best understand the techniques essential to the normative-reeducative change strategy. Because they lack the money, power and expert knowledge necessary to other techniques, they have come instinctively to the use of the telephone which links women confined at home with small children and allows the change agent to demonstrate interest and concern for potential members, to explain how important they are to the success of the endeavor, to praise their recent services; in short, to create the mutually supportive atmosphere essential to group functioning.

Once the initial group is formed, and it is usually small with fewer than ten strongly committed members, the group needs to undertake two tasks important to its own maintenance and growth as well as to its expansion into the community at large. Generally, though group members are committed to an idea, they feel their own knowledge about the issue, and their ability to train others, is inadequate. To some extent these feelings of inadequacy stem from a lack of confidence, but quite often they reflect a realistic lack of knowledge about both their subject and about effective teaching methods. Thus the group needs to identify experts within the community who are willing to donate time to the group, and the group needs to establish methods of training its

members and eventually others to become experts. As was shown earlier, the task can be accomplished quite informally by inviting a retired botanist to go hiking, or more formally via extension courses or guide training sessions. Again the change agent must be sensitive to the readiness of the group as well as the resources within the community available to the group.

Sometime within this initial awareness stage, contact is made with the school. Usually the contact is informal though occasionally a situation such as the building of a new school will cause early initiation of formal contacts. Important to the process, though, is that early involvement be with classroom teachers and building principals rather than with higher level administrators. The change needs to be perceived as stemming from teacher and student needs rather than as a directive from above. Often community members will identify teachers with similar interests through a network of social contacts: after school conversations, membership in the same organizations, discussions at P.T.A. meetings, social occasions and the like. These teachers or administrators become the change agents within the school system. Initially they are ready to try out ideas in their own classrooms, inviting, for instance, a community member to assist on a field trip or with a class project. Later they will serve on the committees that plan the trial programs and are responsible for the first efforts at integrating the program into the school curriculum.

Just as the nature of the issue is important in securing the commitment of community members, it is equally important in interesting teachers in the project. The idea must be immediately relevant to the teachers' work. Again, it is the immediacy of the issue, the appeal of using a nearby park or business as an extended classroom, that appeals rather than the long-range implications of pollution or unemployment. Also important is that the idea for a project be particularly suited for a specific school. For organizational purposes, it is probably unwise to begin with more than one school, but in addition the major contribution of a community-initiated program is its uniqueness. Commercial textbook firms have the resources to develop sophisticated teaching tools; what they cannot do is to adopt those materials to a particular situation.

Thus the initial awareness stage of this model involves impetus from the community and the use of normative change strategy. Implicit in the process is a high degree of informality and flexibility. The success of the project in these early stages will depend on the sensitivity of the change agent and the ability to adapt the techniques to a particular group or school. What needs to be avoided is any appearance of threat or overwhelming demands. The social and personal connections are therefore quite important in creating a climate in which volunteer community members and volunteer teachers will feel secure and enthusiastic enough

to advance to the next stage, the development of a trial program.

### Phase II: Trial

Sometime during the awareness phase, what was originally a rather vaguely defined concern becomes a concrete idea for a program. However, it is difficult to summarize precisely when or through what process the program is conceptualized. Sometimes the change agent arrives with a definite notion of a program that has worked elsewhere; similarly a group of teachers can begin with ideas for helpful programs. Other times the idea for the program develops out of the interactive process of the awareness stage. The process can also differ. Hanover's program described above was a result of a formal needs assessment; Urbana's and Missoula's programs resulted from the combination of the change agent's prior experience and the school's needs.

There are some common factors to this conceptualization process, however. First of all, it is a process that occurs over time, not an event that results from one or two discussions. Even Hanover's formal meetings envisioned only the field aide component not the full dimensions of the program today. One of the advantages of the normative changing process is that it is highly adaptive, and programs grow naturally taking into account the needs and ideas of all those involved.

Secondly, successful programs involve both the schools

and community groups in the conceptualization process. One of the problems with the Madison program is that the schools have been primarily consumers of the programs and were not involved either in their original establishment or, to a great degree, in their later development. On the other hand, the other three programs involved a much greater degree of collaboration. Even in Missoula when the change agent arrived with a highly developed idea, the first stage of that program, the building of the mobile cart, was an entirely new concept, resulting from brainstorming sessions with school staff members. The eventual goal of the changing process is to internalize the change in both the schools and the community; as a result both constituencies must be involved and feel that they have a part in the program that is developed.

Just as important is the fact that the evolving program meets the needs of both the schools and community members. Again it is difficult to summarize all the different types of programs which could possibly meet this criteria; the number is infinite. One can, however, cite some characteristics of successful programs to point out commonalities. It is no accident that the four programs described in this paper have field aide components. The field aide idea provides the teachers with a resource that they cannot provide themselves and that is not available from a commercial firm. Teachers may have a strong desire to use community resources, but they need assistance in identifying relevant social, political,



historical, and economic resources; they need expert guidance in utilizing the resource, and they require additional adult help in managing children outside the classroom.

Another type of program which has been successful in meeting teachers' needs is one providing aide assistance within the classroom. Often teachers feel a commitment to individualization but their districts are unable to fund the salaries of the necessary personnel. However, a variety of programs ranging from foster grandparents to helping mothers to future teacher career education programs at local high schools often function well, with the additional advantage of exposing children to a variety of very creative and interesting people in the community.

Programs which provide unique materials to schools are also highly successful. Slide-tape presentations about a local community, preparation of an outdoor classroom, development and packaging of "touchy-feely" boxes, or disposable materials, or guides to local issues all are extremely helpful to teachers.

Successful programs provide a genuine service to teachers which they cannot acquire elsewhere; in addition they provide that service reasonably efficiently. As any teacher knows and numerous journal articles reflect,<sup>2</sup> good

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<sup>2</sup>See for instance, James R. Spirey, "Community People in the Classroom: Bonanza or Bust?" Kappa Delta Pi Record, 12 (April 1976):22-23, 25.

planning for an outside speaker or a field trip is more time-consuming than planning a regular class. Hence, speakers and field trips are all too rare an occurrence. If the program is to be utilized regularly by a large number of teachers, it must offer well-organized service. All types of administrative problems need to be confronted and resolved or the program's services will not be used.

Just as importantly, a successful program needs to meet the needs of the community volunteer as well as the teacher. Though an occasional school may be lucky enough to find a volunteer who will type, file or grade papers, such an occurrence is rare. Volunteers want work that is interesting and fun. They want occasions to meet socially with others who share similar interests, and they want their work to be personally meaningful. Many like volunteer work that offers training for paid positions later on. The fact that a field guide program fills these needs is another element in its success. Aides are learning about a field that interests them in the company of others who share that interest; they share that expertise with children and thus are involved in a very professional teaching-learning process under the supervision of an experienced teacher. Programs which train aides for classroom work or which provide curriculum packets offer similarly satisfying work as well as training for a possible paid position in the future.

Once the concrete idea for a program exists that has

the support of a small but committed group within the school and community, the task of preparing a pilot begins. It is a key aspect of the overall process because generally the pilot program marks the beginning of the change from a very informal process to a possibly permanent one. Yet the change must be neither too rapid nor become so formal as to lose the flexibility necessary for continued community participation. Issues of funding, training of community and school personnel, continuing administration, and coordination with the existing curriculum must be confronted on an organized though limited and flexible basis.

Of these issues, the one most likely to influence the rest of the process is funding. In some school districts, sufficient money exists for supporting innovative pilot programs. In these districts problems are somewhat simplified in that there is money to pay an administrator's salary, to pay for the necessary training, to buy materials and to pay for released time for teachers to work on curriculum development and coordination. However, more often than not such funding does not exist, or if it does, the pilot program must still prove itself successful before it can compete with many other good ideas for the limited school monies available. Thus in this more usual case, the change agent has the dual responsibility of searching for funds as well as developing a program which is highly dependent on volunteer services in its first few years.

Fund raising ultimately becomes one of the major chores of any group interested in initiating a new program. Whole books exist with nothing but lists of sources of funds for environmental education projects.<sup>3</sup> These books detail the many sources of funds: private corporations, federal agencies, charitable organizations and foundations, and so forth. Generally, similar lists exist on a state level as well. However, just as it is difficult for a small community group to get full funding from a school district, it is just as unlikely for this community change agent to be trained in what has become the highly developed specialty of getting grants. Rather the advice of Hanover's change agent, Allie Quinn, is more likely to be sound:

The Hanover experience is that the best source for small supplementary funding is the community itself, especially conservation organizations, parent-teacher groups, men's civic clubs, and/or town conservation commissions.<sup>4</sup>

The key to attracting local donations is creating a program which can survive on "small, supplementary funding." One of the talents common to all the change agents described above has been their ability to persuade a number of people

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<sup>3</sup>See for instance, Joan Carvajal and Martha E. Munzer, Conservation Education: A Selected Bibliography (Danville, Ill.: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1968); or George S. Bonn, Information Resources in the Environmental Sciences (Champaign-Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois, Graduate School of Library Science, 1972).

<sup>4</sup>Allie Quinn, "A Manual for a Volunteer Field Aide Program" (Hanover, N.H.: Hanover Conservation Council, 1972), p. 11.

to donate their time and their services. The approaches used are as eclectic as are the programs and communities served. The change agent must be very knowledgeable about the resources in her community as well as about effective techniques for communicating with potential supporters.

In Mrs. Quinn's words:

Recruitment of students might best be done by a volunteer who knows the community well. She can use various approaches as appropriate: personal contact and word of mouth, take-home slips for school children, suggestion by teachers or mothers who have shown interest, notices or personal appearances at meetings of appropriate groups (i.e., parent-teacher organizations, cooperative nursery schools, conservation groups, women's organizations, senior citizens' groups), and newspaper notices.<sup>5</sup>

Obviously there are many potential problems in depending too heavily on volunteers. These problems will be discussed in detail below. However, there are also some advantages to using volunteers, or at most "volunteers" who charge a nominal fee. The obvious advantage is the ability to field a program with little financial support. The involvement of a large number of volunteers not only provides this basis but also gives the program a great deal of credibility when it wishes to expand and needs paid assistance. Equally important is the involvement of a wider spectrum of the community in the program. A part-time or full-time job involves a type of commitment which only some members of a community wish to make.

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<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 12.

The type of interaction envisioned in this paper is aimed at involving a much wider population. The idea is to expose school children to many different people as well as to interest as many members of the community as possible in their schools and in the learning process.

Whether or not the limited funds available should be used to pay an administrator's salary again is totally dependent on the particular situation. In most cases the initial change agent becomes the administrator. Often her commitment is strong enough that her services are available at no cost; in other cases it is essential that she be paid. In either case, the importance of securing competent and dependable administrative leadership cannot be underestimated. Because so much of the support for the program at this stage is volunteer, it can dissipate very quickly if either teachers or potential volunteers are confronted with a poorly organized program.

Though most often the change agent does become the chief administrator, the schools, because of their greater access to professional services, must be prepared to offer a varying degree of assistance. The degree depends on the interests, ability and time of the change agent. The offer of clerical services is particularly important if the administrator remains a volunteer. Assistance with routine telephoning and scheduling is also helpful as is access to materials and copying facilities. Though highly organized

volunteers do quite often run an entire program alone, a great number of talented people become discouraged because of the large amount of routine work necessary. If limited funds are available for administrating the program, it will probably be wise to spend them in paying for these kinds of services while relying on volunteers for the more imaginative, and consequently more personally satisfying tasks.

Though it is possible for a small pilot program, such as the mobile cart of Prescott School, to be developed by the change agent with the help of a small support group, inevitably if the program is to be a continuing and growing process, the change agent must develop a mechanism for training other members of the community and other teachers for involvement in the program. Community members may have an interest in the schools and in the proposed program but without training their ability to be of real help to teachers is minimal and their desire to stay with the program is liable to wane. Committed people are also competent people, and competence must be created. In addition, this training process is an essential component of both the normative change strategy and community education. Change involves continuing education, and community education implies educating adults as well as children.

Most of the early training for the pilot programs described above have used volunteer experts to lead a series of training sessions or teach extension courses. The first students tend to be members of the original group along with some

friends and neighbors. Again the change agent's major task is to design sessions that offer a mixture of sociability, skills and knowledge that is geared to the needs of that community. That mixture is difficult to describe but is the key to the program becoming an attractive way for community members to spend their leisure time.

Teachers also will need training, first in the mechanics of using the program and later in the subject matter and skills to be taught through the program. For pilot programs, one or two inservice sessions can accomplish the first goal; however the second goal will involve a process quite similar to the one at work in the community. Generally a popular community training program will attract a few motivated teachers particularly if the school supports their involvement through some incentive such as the offer of recertification credits.

The aim of the training phase for both community members and teachers is the education of a fairly small group of people who are quite interested in the topic and are willing to invest time in the project. This group is less committed than the original instigators of the program but is much more interested than most members of the community or school staff. Though it is typical to hear the change agent and these original trainees bemoan the insensitivity of the community at large, it is still important not to expand the program beyond its administrative limits. Success needs to be defined as the education and



retention of gradually increasing numbers of interested people, not in terms of the massive task of confronting general apathy.

Also important is to keep the implementation of the pilot program manageable enough to be successful. Trained community members must be used and must find the experience satisfying; teachers need to experience real assistance in a new field. Thus the program must be small enough for the change agent to be able to receive personal feedback from all concerned and to correct situations that are not working. A good reputation is particularly important to the growth of a community program. Components of a good reputation generally tend to be interested and satisfied participants who feel part of an efficiently managed process. The scope of the program thus must be kept small enough to ensure that these goals can be met.

However if the pilot stage of the program is successful, the result will be growth. More teachers will learn of the program and want to try it, and more community members will want to participate. A good program will inevitably grow beyond its administrative base and threaten to become unmanageable. Another factor which eventually is likely to make it impossible to continue the program in its trial form has to do with the life stage of the change agent. Typically she has devoted two or more years of intense involvement to the program at this stage and is outgrowing its confines. She

needs to see possibilities for personal growth if she is to continue her leadership, or she needs to arrange the program so that it is not dependent on her services any longer.

Thus both the program and the small group of people responsible for its inception face a need to make a transition; a critical stage has been reached. Quite often the program ends at this point. Everyone agrees that it was a good idea, but the school lacks funds to take it over, and the enthusiastic leader has moved, or changed schools, or gotten a job before confronting the problem of putting the program on a sound administrative base. Perhaps the most important characteristic of a true change agent as compared with a typical volunteer, is that she will have foreseen this stage, will have laid the groundwork for the transition, and will see her role as lasting through the permanent institutionalization of the program.

### Phase III: Institutionalization and Planning

Of all phases of this model, the choice of an institution to carry on the program is most important. It is a difficult issue to discuss because there is no one obvious type of institution which handles these types of programs, but rather a variety which often have little in common with each other. Yet the program's success depends on finding an organized group which is capable of responding to both the

community and the school facets of the program.

It is a common fallacy of enthusiastic volunteer groups to believe that their programs can expand without institutionalization. Too often the necessity is not understood until it is too late, and the program ends. Two rather basic factors make that end inevitable. One is that the combination of enthusiasm, administrative efficiency and free time is rare, with the result that any volunteer program is always highly dependent on a handful of people who are just as subject to life's demands as are other people. Secondly, any large program requires a great deal of routine work which is not liable to interest enough volunteers to ensure the smooth operation of the program. Thus the program must be institutionalized, and generally paid administrative help is a necessity.

This is not to say that the program needs to lose its volunteer component nor that the institutionalization cannot be accomplished by a largely volunteer organization. The fact that most community groups are volunteer attests to their unique ability to respond to community needs. However, any permanent community group does in essence become an institution by solving all the problems common to institutions. It must secure adequate funding, establish a process for recruiting new members and new leaders, provide a mechanism for doing the routine work of the organization, and establish communications with its members and its community. More often than not,

large organizations employ paid administrative and secretarial assistance.

The institution chosen to administer the type of program described here must have three basic characteristics: it must be informal enough so that community members feel comfortable with it and are willing to continue their participation under its leadership; the institution must also have close personal ties with school administrators and teachers; finally, the institution must have access to sufficient funds and well-trained personnel to administer the program efficiently.

There are a number of mechanisms that an institution can use to ensure continued community involvement. One is to form a community advisory board or to have a number of community members on the actual governing board of the organization. Another common technique is to hire the change agent or members of her group to continue to administer the program. One can also devise a mechanism for incorporating the original volunteer group into the program. Generally in this case the group continues to operate the program with the administrative assistance of the institution. Though the method can vary, it is important that community members be a formal part of the institution and be in a place to advise administrators on the techniques necessary to sustain community participation. A sense of informality and flexibility, a degree of social interaction, as well as a need to learn new skills and do interesting

work are as important to community members at this stage as they were in earlier phases of the program. These needs must be met in an adaptable, ongoing manner.

Techniques for continued involvement with the schools can be equally varied. Some institutions such as teacher centers have governing boards made up of teachers. Other groups operating school programs invite teachers to serve on their advisory or governing boards. Many institutions hire coordinators whose major job is to ensure good communications and interaction. Others hire former teachers who have a network of acquaintances throughout the district. In many cases the program is administered by a formal group made up of members of all interested constituencies including the schools. Just as with the community component, the important factor is that the technique be both formal and personal. It must be formal to be permanent, but it must involve close contact with the informal social network of the school.

Because of the characteristics noted above, it is less likely that this type of community program will be successfully administered by the schools. Obviously there are exceptions, just as there are definite advantages to school administration, secure funding and access to trainer personnel being the most obvious. However, the community facet of the program is likely to be lost under school administration, and many competent community members eliminated by problems of certification and conformity to other state and local guidelines.

Similarly, administration by an established community service organization has its problems. Though these groups have close ties to the community, they lack the equally important access to the school world and often have too many other important services to perform. Thus the search for an institution needs to be a very creative process that will identify not the obvious contenders, but the unusual group that can best meet all of the needs of the program.

Both community members and school personnel can play an important role in this search. It is often during this phase that community members begin to develop lobbying skills that are important to the growth of the program. In Urbana, for instance, the community members lobbied the Park District persuading it to take over the program and over time to hire the trained personnel necessary to run the program. Similarly, they grew adept at lobbying school administrators to get sufficient funds for their program. Though lobbying is a very complex process, the program described above is as suited for producing skilled lobbyists as it is for providing trained aides for the schools. Volunteers have established personal communications within the school and within the community, and they can call on committed community members to support their positions. Training has often given these members a sense of confidence and ability to express their views publicly that they would not have had without contact with the program.

School personnel are also important as lobbyists. Though generally it is more advisable to find an outside agency to run the program, that agency will need the guarantee of many kinds of assistance from the schools before taking on the obligation. Committed teachers can persuade administrators to provide funds, facilities, released time, and the coordination necessary for full use of the program's potential.

Once the institution has been identified and persuaded to take over the program, the planning for a full adoption by an entire school district or area can be started. In many ways this planning is an extension of the three-way process that has occurred all along. The community has its role, and the school its part. What is different is that the institution has become, or in many cases has hired, the change agent. Thus the institution becomes responsible for the continued changing process in addition to handling the day to day administrative details. A key administrator is hired or reassigned and takes over the role of the change agent. It is important that the process developed formally involves each constituency and makes clear the role each should play.

Though each program will have somewhat different demands, there are obvious functions that are best performed by each group. Community groups are most suited for identifying and recruiting volunteers. Neither an outside institution nor the schools has the social network of interlocking groups that is continually searching for new members and involving

them in community activities. The organizing institution needs to develop a mechanism for linking with this recruitment process. The mechanism can be any of the ones discussed above or perhaps a less formal method. It also can be supplemented by more organized forms of recruitment such as the use of media advertisements. However, word of mouth is still perhaps the most effective device for securing volunteer help, and the community is most adept at using this technique.

The community is also important as an ongoing lobby for the program. Inevitably the program will have to compete with other worthwhile ideas for school or private funds. Institutional lobbyists will always be suspect, and therefore it is important to involve as many community groups as possible as sponsors and continued supporters of the program. It is generally at this stage that the originators of the program approach other like-minded groups. The Park District in Urbana, for instance, provided a meeting place for a number of conservation groups and incidentally secured their support for many of their expanded activities.

Likewise the school has several roles in planning for district-wide implementation of the program which it is best suited to perform. Of these roles the most important, and the most neglected in the four programs presented above, is the planning needed to incorporate the program into the regular scope and sequence of the curriculum. Outside groups may develop many imaginative activities and materials, but unless



these are integrated into the basic curriculum, they will generally be used only by those few teachers who sponsored the experimental programs. Probably the formal curriculum committee with members from various grade and subject areas, headed by the curriculum specialist, is the best mechanism for addressing this problem. Smaller schools may use less formal procedures, but given the pressures of the normal teaching day, it is best not to leave the process up to chance. The committee may want to ask community members to be regular members or invite them as outside consultants.

This committee should not see its role as creating new materials and programs. Some experimental ideas will already exist, and a group will be formed for developing further ideas. Rather the committee will need to evaluate and place the established programs and give direction to those working on new materials. The committee needs to consider issues of integrating the program with skill sequences and knowledge areas, the grading of various materials, and the question of whether various activities should be considered basic or optional. As the process of reviewing existing materials proceeds, the need for further development will be more apparent.

The fact that the four communities described above have failed to include this step in their programs is interesting and indicative of a common weakness in community-initiated programs. It is perhaps a fact of human nature that change agents are more likely to be appreciative of the

need for the slow normative approach to change for themselves and their immediate groups and less alert to that need for other groups. Thus these change agents took real care in educating their constituencies but failed to familiarize themselves with some of the very different methods necessary to begin the same process in the schools. Though a social network exists in the school, an equal force is the demands of the grade or subject area being taught. Teachers will listen to the experiences of other teachers but must also see how the program will fit with their subject and their aged child. The reeducative strategy for teachers must directly relate to their work as well as to their network of friendships.

There are limits to the normative approach, however, and it is the function of a curriculum committee to decide those limits. Any program that remains totally optional, used only by committed teachers, is liable to be labeled a "frill" and dispensed with during the next budget cut. If a program has merit, basic aspects of it need to be required so teachers can make valid assumptions about the preparation their students have had in earlier years. The process of arriving at a required core can, and probably should, be a normative one with opinions solicited from as wide a group as practical. However, once the decision has been made, care needs to be taken to see that it is carried out by all concerned.

Just as the community is best suited for recruiting volunteers, the school is the best group to recruit teachers

to coordinate the program and to serve as advisors to the organizing institution. Programs can fail not just because volunteer leaders resign but also because key teachers who have been instrumental in the experimental stages of the program leave or go on to other projects. The school needs to insure continuing leadership for the program to endure.

Both community members and school personnel need to be involved in planning other aspects of the program as well, but the impetus and major administrative direction will probably best come from the designated institution. Key issues that must be discussed in the planning phase are issues of funding and training. In many programs, curriculum guides and additional materials will need to be developed for the program to be useful to the less knowledgeable teachers. Also necessary is a sound evaluation and continuous revision process. Though each of these aspects of the program need the contribution of community members and classroom teachers, they also are fairly complicated matters which will benefit from the concentrated energies of trained administrators.

Funding, of course, is a basic need. It is relatively useless to spend energies on planning a major program unless that program has a sound financial basis. The program as developed so far has been highly dependent on volunteer labor and donated materials with only a small level of funding from the school or local groups. Though it is conceivable that some programs can continue with only slightly increased funds, such

programs are not liable to expand much beyond their original limits, and they will remain highly vulnerable because of their dependence on a few key volunteers. For the program to grow and become permanent, funds must be secured to pay the salaries of the organizing personnel and the experts running the training programs. Supplies need to be available, and if at all possible, funds for small fees for community guides, and released time for participating teachers. Secretarial assistance and sufficient office space will also be needed.

Suggestions for possible funding as well as expertise in obtaining it may come from any one or all three of the groups participating. Community members are most knowledgeable about local sources and can act as lobbyists in getting the funds. Parents, teachers and school administrators know the school budget process and would be able to obtain funds from that source. The administrators within the institution should have skills in writing proposals for government or private foundation grants. She also would have the time to investigate the many outside sources of funds such as those from corporations or from lesser known government agencies.

The administrator will have to exercise judgment as to which mixture of funding will be most beneficial for the program. In some districts it would be wise to secure a contribution from the schools whereas in others, such a commitment may be impossible. Similarly, continued community financial support may or may not be important in establishing the program's

credibility. Outside funds may be essential in helping with start-up costs, and in many poorer districts in paying regular operating costs. The administrator in this case needs to have the sensitivity of the original change agent in judging which combination is best for this particular community.

Though community training programs and inservice sessions existed in the pilot stage, both the format as well as the administration needs to be rethought during this more formal planning phase. Generally the community members and teachers in the experimental programs were highly committed. As the program expands to include an entire district or geographic area, one must assume much less initial enthusiasm and knowledge. The new training sessions need to take into account the needs of this wider constituency. It is likely, too, that it will be impossible to administer and staff the training sessions with volunteers as was done earlier. The institution must provide the leadership, funding and administrative assistance necessary for planning these expanded sessions.

However, the administrator from the institution needs to be in constant touch with community and school personnel. A guide training program can fail miserably, for instance, if the administrator fails to make a provision for preschool children. Inservice sessions can be resented to the point of making them useless if teachers feel they are not being included in the planning process. These needs illustrate the importance of choosing an institution and an administrator

that has credibility and close ties with both groups.

The administrator will also need to plan for coordinating the activities of those working on curriculum guides and materials. School personnel can and should make judgments about integrating materials into the total school program. Community members have expertise about local conditions. However, neither group probably has the right combination of time or knowledge to write the guides or make the materials. A key part of the planning process is to establish a process for involving community members and teachers in curriculum work. Though the actual development of materials will be an ongoing process, the planning phase should address problems of recruiting, training, and paying those who work on curriculum projects. The administrator will also need to arrange to provide this group with the technical and secretarial assistance it needs.

The curriculum group will rarely have to start completely from scratch. There are innumerable curriculum guides, both free and commercial, in the field of environmental education. Equal attention has been given in recent years to career education, local history, current problems, and fine arts programs. One of the major functions of the administrator will be to be aware of these programs and get copies for the group to review. Groups of teachers working on the project will need to review materials for grade level and appropriateness for the particular school program. Community members can adapt lessons to particular local sites and conditions. Their energies are also

useful in describing possible field trips, making lists of community members who would be willing to share their interests with school children, developing community classrooms, writing background articles for teachers or students on local issues, and in creating such aides as slide-tape presentations of local sites. What will probably result is a "cut and paste job" from the public guides combined with a judicious purchase of commercial materials, and the addition of locally developed units. The administrator's task will be to organize these materials in some fashion so as to make them accessible to teachers, and to make a plan for their distribution.

Though an outline of a curriculum guide and some materials need to be available before implementation of the full program, it is more practical to think of this phase as a continuing process. Whatever format is used should be expendable and adaptable as new members with different talents become interested in the project. Hanover's "Move Kits" are an example of such a format. New kits can be added at any time and circulated under the same distribution formula. Similarly, expandable envelopes, looseleaf notebooks, or portable carts are preferable to the traditional stapled curriculum guides which are too quickly outdated.

A final aspect of this planning phase is making a provision for evaluation and revision. Again the administrator is probably the best person to coordinate both the school and community facets of this process. Most schools will have formal

procedures for evaluating new programs, and in many cases these can be used with only a few adaptations. In smaller schools a new system will have to be devised with attention being paid to brevity and ease in completion. Evaluations of community satisfaction with the program and measures of the program's influence in the community are less likely to exist and are harder to develop. It is important, however, to devise regular methods of assessment. Solicitations of evaluations of training programs and yearly comments by guides on the entire program are examples of formal measures which may be used. In addition, it is important for the administrator to stay atuned to the informal network in both the community and the schools. Helpful suggestions are likely to be made if the administrator and other program personnel are open to them.

At the end of this planning process, then, there will be a designated institution and an administrator with strong ties to both the community and the schools. Community groups will be active in soliciting support for the program and recruiting new volunteers. The schools will have established a mechanism for integrating the program into the scope and sequence of the curriculum and will have established procedures for selecting school personnel to coordinate the program. The administrator, with appropriate advice from school and community, will have secured funding for the program, revised and expanded both the community and school training programs, will have created a procedure for developing lesson plans and materials, and will



have chosen appropriate evaluation devices. In ideal terms the program is ready to begin. Realistically some of these steps will have been taken, some ignored, some partially confronted, and some will be planned for the future. The administrator, now the change agent, needs to be adept at judging how much of the ideal planning process is necessary given the particular situation, and how much can be grafted on to the program when it is already in progress.

#### Phase IV: Implementation and Continued Change

A well-planned program is by definition a program that will be smoothly implemented. Continuous evaluation will identify any problems and bring about the necessary revision. No plan is perfect, however, and a plan involving the complicated interaction described here is less likely to be flawless than most. Thus it is important to reemphasize those facets of the process that will need particular attention if the program is to be successful.

The heart of the interactive process connecting community and school is the training of both groups. The smooth implementation of the program will depend on both groups having had sufficient preparation. The training sessions for community members need first to introduce them to the subject and skills to be taught. Community members will also need some introduction to teaching techniques. Of equal importance are discussions of the

field aides' role in the classroom, relationships with teachers, and the importance of such matters as punctuality. Finally, it is important that community members have a concrete idea of the process through which problems can be resolved and the program revised.

Similar topics need to be discussed at teacher inservice sessions. While one or two sessions familiarizing teachers with the mechanics of a program might have been sufficient for the pilot program, the inservice for full district implementation needs to be more thorough. Awareness activities will be necessary as many teachers will have virtually no knowledge about the topics. A field trip to a potential community classroom or exposure to one of the field guide training sessions might serve to introduce teachers to a new area. Teachers will also need to see how the program can supplement or replace units they are now teaching so that the program does not appear as an additional burden. Finally, teachers need to be sensitized to the needs of community workers. They need to discuss how to integrate aides into the classroom and how to solve any misunderstandings that may occur.

Just as inadequately trained community members or uninformed unenthusiastic teachers can make full implementation of a program difficult, so will lack of attention to the place of the program within the total school curriculum. Teachers, like most humans, accept change slowly and are very likely to reject new programs that are conceived of as additions rather than

replacements to their course of study. Too much is usually required as it is, and teachers resent being asked to add a new item to an already crowded schedule. Thus if the school has not already begun the integration process, it is very important that it be done at this juncture. A trip to a local natural area, for instance, needs to be seen as a regular part of the school's science program and an activity far preferable to a similar lesson suggested in the text. Teachers are far more liable to use the program if they view it as an improvement to their existing lessons, and an improvement that is reasonably easy to use. In other words, even though the program was conceived and to a large extent developed outside of the school, it still must be internalized within the school for its full potential to be reached.

Finally, care needs to be taken during the implementation phase to insure that the mechanisms for continued support of the program are functioning. These mechanisms have been described in detail elsewhere. They range from continuing to attract new members, new leaders and the support of influential community groups, to a continued attention to funding and to sound evaluation and revision procedures. What needs to be implemented, in other words, is not so much a static program but a process that has the capability of renewing itself and growing.

A program, however well-conceived, will always have its limitations. An environmental field aide program essentially only encompasses one problem in one subject area. It is not

community education in the real sense, nor can it, as a solitary element, bring about the broader goals of that movement. It has the potential, however, for becoming the basis for a well-founded expansion. Just as the change agent is one person who touches others, a solidly based program is itself a catalyst that initiates a dynamic process. The process, to return to the stated goal, should increasingly integrate community and school so that children are educated within their community, and adults reenter the learning process.

The direction for expansion can be as imaginatively conceived as the original program. The administrator working within the framework of the chosen institution and in constant collaboration with community members and teachers continues the process of change, but with the momentum of a successful program as an impetus. Generally the initial expansion phase is a logical extension of the program into related areas. The programs described above, for instance, expanded from the original field aide concept into the development of curriculum materials. Ideas for materials occurred naturally as field aides became more familiar with their subject area and more aware of the needs of the children they served. In some cases the materials were specific to the locality, as for instance in the case of slide-tape presentations. In other cases they were imaginatively arranged hands-on materials collected from local sources. Sometimes the ideas for materials came from teachers, the mobile cart in Missoula being one example. As long as the

initial program has involved interested volunteers and has solid financial and administrative backing, the expansion in this direction can occur without much additional planning.

Another logical extension of the program is in the area of training. The original program trained just those community members and teachers actually working with the program. A further step might be to design staff development programs for teachers and adult education courses for the community. Obviously each extension is a major development and would involve detailed planning. However, the presence of a successful model as well as a strong framework should make the extension somewhat easier than the formation of the original program. The "Reading the Landscape" courses in Madison and Urbana are examples of adult education courses which serve both the schools and the community. None of the four cities has progressed beyond this level to date, but one could envision adult courses with much stronger field components. One could also imagine incorporating the school training program into a community education program that on the one hand could offer a series of job training options to prepare volunteers for local employment, and on the other hand could offer experiences which enhance the use of leisure time.

Staff development options are equally varied. Formats can vary from short conferences or workshops to full length extension courses. Teachers may wish further training in the subject and skills being offered, in developing appropriate materials, or perhaps in the extended areas of further collabora-

tion with the community and leadership opportunities in this field.

Another possible extension of the original concept is geographic extension, which in itself is likely to bring in new people with a greater variety of ideas. Urbana's program is now extending to the entire county, and Hanover's to the nine supervisory unions served by the local teacher center. Geographic extension is not quite as simple as it might seem, though, even if the original program is fully funded and has a strong organizational base. The essence of these programs is that they have deep community ties, and thus each geographic expansion has to be accompanied by the involvement of the particular community. Rural Urbana is very different from its university dominated city. Expansion can benefit from organizational security, but care must be taken to adapt the program to each community with its separate identity.

Yet another avenue of expansion is to use the format developed in one subject area for another area. The field aide concept, for instance, has viability not just in environmental education but in career education, recreational programs, cultural and historical education. Hanover's environmental education program, for instance, is an outgrowth of a much older ski program. The Ford Sayre Memorial Foundation in that town has since the 1940s trained mothers to become volunteer ski instructors for the town's children. Thus there is a long history of training volunteers in a variety of fields, and in turn

using these volunteers as instructors for town children. Another example is the use of Hanover's MOVE Kits for a variety of subjects. The kits originally packaged environmental education materials for the schools, but more recently community members with different backgrounds have developed such diversified topics as African cultures and sexual stereotyping. Once the structure exists for a particular type of community-school interaction, the extension of that usage to other areas is quite feasible.

A further area for extension is the idea of using the organizational base of the program as a center for community self-help. Again groups of community members, teachers and children working together are very likely to generate ideas for projects. Environmental education programs can lead to community clean-up projects, recycling programs, acquisition of town natural areas, development of nature trails and summer camping programs, not to mention participation in controversial issues such as the siting of power plants or shopping centers. The possibilities for joint participation of school children and community members in projects of vital concern to the whole group is exciting for both groups. The idealism of youth and the practical skills of adults can be a force for true community improvement.

Whatever the direction of expansion the prerequisites for changing remain essentially the same. There needs first to be a format and an atmosphere conducive to developing new ideas.

The ideas themselves will come if groups of people sharing a common interest are brought together and feel that their ideas are both possible and worthwhile. Training and inservice sessions, board meetings, and curriculum groups are as likely to produce innovative ideas for expansion as they are to complete the work at hand. Those involved, though, must feel that there is a real possibility for their ideas to develop, a sound financial and administrative framework must exist to bring the idea to fruition. Secondly, these people must feel that their ideas are worthwhile. In other words they must feel that they continue to be at the center of the normative-reeducative changing process at work in their schools and community.

#### Prescott School

Today, Prescott School has a mobile cart, a small portable center filled with guide books, suggested lesson plans, small magnifying glasses, and collecting boxes. The cart is the concrete symbol of a two-year process, much of which is not yet visible even to the participants. There is a women's hiking group, a few of whose members occasionally take groups of children up Mt. Jumbo. A few more women have done research on local history, land use, geology and wildlife, and have written their findings for the mobile cart. Today, Prescott School does not have a definable program. Only a few teachers are exploring the materials on a trial basis. Financing and



leadership is haphazard, totally dependent on the energies of a few community members and teachers.

Yet a process, however tentative and vulnerable, has begun, and ultimately it is the process that is more important than the institutions or the programs it spawns. The goal is to involve community and schools in an ongoing communication. That communication given the right environment is bound to be creative both to the children and to the adults involved. Children begin to see their schooling as part of their total life experience, and adults see a purpose in setting direction for their communities. It is a quantum jump to go from mobile carts to community education, or for that matter from Mt. Jumbo to Prescott School. The process of making those connections, however, is in itself an education.

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